The Nation.

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The Week.

Formal peace with Spain is brought within reach by the act of the Queen-Regent of Spain on Friday in signing the treaty, and real peace in the Philippines was thought at Washington to be, in the light of Gen. Otis's dispatches, only a matter of hours. What the exact situation at Manila is, and by what means Gen. Otis expects to bring about the submission of the natives, can only be guessed. It is certainly to be hoped, for every reason, that the Philippine Commission, whose membership is now complete with the arrival of Mr. Denby, may speedily be able to secure peace. It is no time to stand on punctilio if there is any chance at all of ending these daily massacres, which shock and shame even the most glory-drunken Americans.

Our Cuban problem grows harder instead of simpler with the advance of the season. The War Department is of course anxious to get the volunteers out of the island before the yellow fever appears. This is a matter of great importance to all our Southern cities, with quarantine in its present disorganized state. If troops are all the while to be coming and going, the danger of a yellow-fever epidemic in the South will be greater than ever before. Yet it would seem that the very first withdrawals of our soldiers from Cuba excite evil-minded Cubans to all kinds of disorder. Brigandage breaks out in Santiago, and the civil authorities in Havana are unable to cope with rioters. That we shall ultimately dominate the situation we do not doubt, but there is no danger that the men in charge will stagnate for lack of difficulties. Gen. Ludlow has already asked for a transfer, which we take to be a sign of breaking health, or else of a feeling that he is not given adequate support.

The conduct of the officers and soldiers of our Cuban war army in regard to the question of bad beef must be extremely annoying to McKinley, Alger, and Eagan. At every opportunity they have persisted in saying that the beef which they got in the field was so vile that burial was the only disposition possible to be made of it. When the Court of Inquiry was sitting in Washington, some very nice canned beef was opened and served up in various forms for the soldiers to taste. They tasted, and when asked to say which variety was like what they had in the field, they all said none of it was like what they had. They went on the witness-stand and swore that what they had in the field was simply loathsome. Then the Court went to Chicago and made an inspection of the canning business, being shown how carefully the beef was canned and how nice it tasted. But more obstinate soldiers went on the stand and said that what they had received in the field was not nice, that it not only smelled to heaven, but had maggots in it. Then the Court adjourned to Omaha, and inspected the canning processes there, finding them agreeable in every way, and the beef itself most delightful eating. Then they called some more soldiers, and these said the same things about the beef they had been supplied with by Eagan and Alger that all the other soldiers had said. The Omaha canning methods might be perfect, but the kind of canned beef turned out was not the kind that reached the soldiers in the field. Did anybody ever see such irritating perversity! The President ought to rebuke them in a special proclamation.

It is not only in the United States that anger is aroused "in military circles" by the courageous truth-telling of an honest officer. The last Governor-General of Cuba, Gen. Castellanos, who is now Captain-General of Madrid, spoke last week in high praise of the Spanish private soldier, but intimated that many officers ought to be sent to the galleys. The resulting uproar is naturally tremendous. And yet Castellanos has only said what has been charged openly in the Cortes. One bold Senator declared that many Spanish generals, instead of flaunting their way back to Spain and taking their seats in the Senate, ought to be hung in their own sashes. We believe this heroic man is still fighting duels in consequence of his utterances, but he stands by all he has said. A still more sinister attack on the officers of the Spanish army was made by a Deputy, who demanded that the Bank of Spain be required to publish the accounts of all the generals of the army who had deposits with that institution. The Prime Minister, however, discovered a fatal objection to such a course. One of the rules of the Bank of Spain forbade the publication of private accounts, and the Government could never think of ordering the bank to violate one of its by-laws.

Admiral Walker's testimony before the River and Harbor Committee, in "executive session," throws a weird light on the Nicaragua Canal project. Only by the most desperate efforts was Congress prevented from voting millions and millions for a scheme which, its most ardent promoters were forced to confess, had scarcely got beyond the stage of guesswork. Routes, levels, number of locks, location and number of dams—all were in the air, while the cost was evidently something of which Admiral Walker had only the vaguest notion. Then there was the highly important matter of diplomatic negotiations. They, too, were all at loose ends. Congress was going full tilt over the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. That is, no doubt, a minor matter. England would, we suppose, cancel that treaty for the asking. In this happy time of good feeling, Lord Salisbury would say to his adored and very useful Columbia, "Do what you will; I can refuse you nothing." But that would be by no means the end of the diplomacy necessary. It is admitted that Costa Rica has rights along the route of the Nicaragua Canal, and that her consent to its construction must be secured. It never has been secured. The concessionaires have always contemptuously assumed that they could get what they wanted by means of bribery, when the time came. When the President of Costa Rica was in Washington last winter, there was much chuckling over his apparent willingness to be corrupted by the Nicaragua Canal promoters. But they were doing their corrupting in other quarters just then, and left President Iglesias severely alone, much to that statesman's surprise, it is said. Still, an arrangement of some kind with Costa Rica is necessary before the canal can be built; but Congress was eager to leap into the dark as respects that difficulty, just as it was in the case of all others.

What Congress finally did, mainly through Speaker Reed's efforts, was to pass a bill calling for the appointment of a new commission, to examine the whole question of an isthmian canal, and especially the comparative merits of the Nicaragua and Panama routes. The President has not yet announced his appointments to this important commission. It is to be hoped that he will see the necessity of securing men of high ability and impartiality, and will not, as it has been reported that he would do, choose a commission packed against the Panama route. At any rate, the thing has now got to such a pass that entire publicity is essential. The new report to Congress cannot be drawn up in a corner. Already it is announced that a large party of Senators and Representatives are to visit the isthmus, to see with their own eyes what is the state of the works. What they will find at the Nicaragua route may be inferred from Admiral Walker's admissions. At Panama they will find a canal one-third done; they will find 4,000 or 5,000 men at work; they will find complete plans

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worked out to the minutest details by the most eminent engineers in the world; they will find a company ready to give a bond to complete the canal in ten years without asking the United States for a dollar, while yet giving our Government all the political control of it that is either desirable or possible. We are not committed to the Panama route, or to any other. All that we want, and all that we believe the country wants, is to see a canal built across the isthmus in the best way and at the best place, and with the least cost and embarrassment to the Government.

The undoubted intention of Congress will be carried out by the decision of the Adjutant-General that the sale of intoxicating drinks shall not be permitted in any post-exchange or canteen of the army. The proceedings in each branch make it perfectly plain that the clause on the subject inserted in the army reorganization act was designed to reach this end, and it would have been a strained interpretation of the language employed if the War Department had assumed that some evasion of the intended prohibition was still possible, through the engagement of civilians, instead of soldiers, as liquor-sellers. Gen. Corbin is quite right in saying that "the plain intent and spirit of the law are that intoxicants shall not be sold on a military reservation," and he enunciates the only sound principle when he says that "there shall be no 'monkeying' with 'liberal construction' or other forms of evasion; it is our business to see that the laws are enforced in their spirit as well as their letter, and that ends it." There will consequently be a thorough trial of the abolition of the sale of liquor under the patronage of the Government in the army under the new law; while the same experiment will also be made in the navy, under the order recently issued by Secretary Long, forbidding the sale or issue to enlisted men of malt or other alcoholic liquors on board ships of the navy or within the limits of naval stations.

It is refreshing to find that six years of Addickism have not demoralized public sentiment in Delaware so much as was to have been feared. On the last day of the legislative session in that State, three Democrats voted to elect Addicks United States Senator under circumstances which left no moral doubt that they had been bribed. From the moment that they responded to their names on the roll-call they have been treated by all with whom they came in contact as men previously supposed to be honest should be treated when they have sold themselves. The President *pro tem.* of the Senate immediately struck off the name of Senator Farlow from the committee of finance, of which he was the chairman, and also from the other committees of which he was a member, and notified him of the reasons for the action. Farlow is a holding-over Senator, but all his associates, Democrats and Republicans alike, except the few Republicans in that branch who are owned by Addicks, have agreed that, if he shall appear in the next Legislature, they will have no association whatever with him. The two Democratic members of the lower branch who sold out to Addicks were bitterly denounced to their faces on the floor of the House the moment that their associates and outsiders could get at them, and they were advised by the authorities to delay their departure from the capitol until the mob outside should cool off, for fear of violence.

Mr. Bryan's insistence that all banquets which he attends must be strictly "Jeffersonian," has its humorous as well as its politic side, but there is no doubt that he is giving Croker a good deal of trouble. If the Boss's Lucullus feast is to be only the signal for a Democratic war on the banqueters, where will he find even an apparently respectable man to sit down along with him and his fellow-blackmailers? We can imagine a shame-faced aspirant for office consenting to sit down with Croker's pigs in the parlor, but not if he knows that he will diminish his chances for office as well as incur the contempt of honest men. Mr. Bryan, we see, is coming out strong just now on those parts of the Chicago platform which declare for the income tax and other forms of assault on "accumulated wealth." This is the tremendous reaction which Mr. McKinley and his syndicate are preparing for us.

The sensible men and women of this State feel a sense of deep obligation to Gov. Roosevelt for his admirable course throughout the incident which ended in the execution of Mrs. Place on Monday. When clemency was asked for the murderess, he made a thorough investigation of the case, going carefully over the evidence and consulting the District Attorney and the judge who were engaged in the trial. When the question of sanity was raised, he appointed two doctors of the highest standing to examine the convict and determine whether there was any ground for the suspicion that she was not in her right mind at the time of the tragedy. When the judicial authorities confirmed the Executive's own conclusion that the conviction was just, and the medical experts decided that the woman had been sane all along, no question remained except that of interference with the course of the law on the ground of the criminal's sex. This Gov. Roosevelt refused, and in the refusal he has been sustained by the thoughtful people of the State, without regard to sex.

Having done his own duty as regarded interference with the sentence, Gov. Roosevelt went a step further, and took measures to secure the decent and orderly execution of that sentence. He instructed the Warden of Sing Sing prison to have a woman attendant and a woman physician with Mrs. Place at the last moment, to allow the representatives of the two press associations, but no other correspondents of newspapers, to be present, and in every way to carry out the Governor's "desire that this solemn and painful act of justice shall not be made an excuse for that species of hideous sensationalism which is more demoralizing than anything else to the public mind." The result was the most orderly and seemly infliction of the death penalty ever known in the case of a woman in the history of the country. The superiority of the electric chair to the gallows as a means of executing criminals may now be considered thoroughly established. Massachusetts is the first State to recognize the wisdom of New York's example by the passage of a law making this change in the administration of the death penalty, and it cannot be long before the same change will be made throughout the country.

An attempt has been made to discover the attitude of bankers in a Western State towards the question of currency reform, and the results are worthy of national attention. Representative Babcock of Wisconsin is a member of the committee appointed by a Republican Congressional caucus last winter to consider this subject during the recess and report a bill next winter, and he recently addressed a series of inquiries to about 300 representative financial men in his State. Something over 100 replies have thus far been received. There was a close approach to unanimity in the answers to the first question, "Do you favor the increase of national bank circulation to the par value of bonds deposited in the United States Treasury?" 110 saying yes, and only 10 no. There was more division of opinion than was to have been expected regarding the repeal of the tax on national bank circulation, only 63 favoring it, while 33 opposed it, and 16 expressed doubts or favored reduction rather than repeal. So, too, regarding another matter about which it had been assumed that there was little difference of opinion, the question of authorizing national banks with a capital of only $25,000, so as to increase the banking facilities of small towns; while 88 favored this, 28 were opposed. The next question on the list was, "Do you favor the payment of all the demand obligations of the Government in gold?" A greater percentage of the replies received omitted the opinion of the correspondent on this question than on any other in the list, and a number of the replies were evasive; of

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the rest, 70 favored the proposition, while 26 were either directly against it, or qualified by statements like this, "Only when made for gold," or "When demanded."

Eastern people will be most interested to learn the feeling of financiers in a Western State regarding the greenback question. One of the inquiries was this: "Do you favor the President's suggestion that a greenback once redeemed in gold shall not be paid out again except for gold?" There were 113 replies, of which 104 were in the affirmative. The next question, very properly, was as to the disposition which should be made of the greenbacks, and particularly whether they should be retired. It is not surprising to learn that a considerable proportion "approach this proposition rather gingerly." Of the 84 who expressed positive opinions, 47 favored retirement, 25 opposed it, and 12 were for eventual retirement, or for retirement only after a sufficient quantity of national-bank circulation, or other money, has been provided to fill the room of the greenbacks to be retired. There were other questions regarding less important points, one at least of which was too vaguely stated to render the replies of any value. The most valuable information brought out is the almost unanimous opinion among Wisconsin bankers that greenbacks once redeemed in gold should never be paid out again except for gold, and the Milwaukee *Sentinel* considers it "safe to say that a great majority of the business men of the State agree with the bankers in this belief."

The most important development since the war on the baggage abuse began is found in a special dispatch to the Boston *Journal,* from its Washington correspondent. He asserts that the annoyances to which returning travellers are subjected "are making any amount of trouble for the Administration"; and that information brought to Washington by leading Republicans indicates that the complaints which are pouring in on the Treasury Department only partly represent the bitter feeling which has been aroused. There is a very practical side to this bitter feeling which has been brought to light by a Republican high-tariff Senator, who has been making investigations in this city and in Boston. He finds that men who have made large contributions to Republican campaign funds in the past, announce that they will not only never make such contributions in the future, but will do all that they can to defeat the party. The importance of all this can be seen when we learn that the Senator told of one such man who has in the past given $40,000 to the managers of the Republican campaign. In the light of such a fact, it is not strange that the senatorial investigator should have warned the Treasury Department that the prospects of the party next fall will be seriously imperilled unless the inquisitorial regulations be revoked.

There was a long and interesting letter in the *Tribune* on Monday, from Dean Lefroy of Norwich, England, on the church crisis in that country. Most of it is historical, and, therefore, only of minor interest to this public. Its importance is mainly in the latter portion, which deals with the remedy. The remedy which Dean Lefroy suggests is the one which for some time past has been suggesting itself to every truly Protestant minister in England; namely, the admission of the laity to their ancient place in church government. This remedy has been staring the English church in the face ever since the Revolution in America, and ever since 1870 in Ireland. The experience of Ireland has been even more remarkable than ours. What the Irish Anglican Church has been to the Irish everybody knows. As Sheil once described it, "always the church of the state, never the church of the people; a church which had cost England her millions of treasure, and Ireland her torrents of blood." As to the character of the clergy in the last century, it will be remembered that Swift maintained that the bishops, who were generally Englishmen sent from England, were highwaymen who had met the bishops on their way over and had changed clothes with them and personated them in their dioceses. The church was property in Ireland as well as England. As property it belonged to the landlords, while as church it was governed by Parliament through the clergy. As property the lay owner of the living put anybody he pleased, not openly immoral, in the pulpit. The congregation had nothing to do with the matter, had no power to call the minister to account about anything, not even if he were a persistent absentee. We know the rest.

The effect of the disestablishment in Ireland has been magical. The church government has been reorganized on the American model—government by the clergy *and* the laity. The liturgy has been revised on the same lines. The result has been, after thirty-five years' trial, we are informed on good authority, a very great revival of religious feeling, which, under the old régime, was nearly dead; a great increase in the amount of money voluntarily contributed for ecclesiastical purposes, and a sense of strength the church has never had since it was established. It is only by a similar process that the English church can be saved, and that the laity can be got to care whether it lives or dies, now that the power of the landlords in the country districts has waned. Disestablishment is something from which even ardent dissenters shrink. The church must have something to rest on except silly young "priests" or lethargic old ones. We have heard a good deal of the Romanizing movement ascribed by a very competent observer to the want of more work by lusty young ministers in country parishes. In default of full occupation, they invent new ceremonies and new powers and duties for the "priest," and the laity have no legal right to interfere with their antics.

Sir William Harcourt's latest warning to the English bishops is that if they do not put down the Ritualists' "open insurrection against the law of the Church, the insurrection will put down the bishops." Yet he deprecates, or appears to deprecate, the one clear solution—disestablishment. He writes, in reference to the asserted readiness of the Ritualists to accept disestablishment: "When it comes to the pinch, the great body of the clergy will prefer, as they did at the Reformation, submission to the law rather than rebellion with its consequences." But a consequence already realized is the shame and scandal brought on religion, not only by clergy defying their diocesans and the law, but by the unseemly disturbances which are repeatedly occurring at church services. There seems to be a sort of organized band of "Kensit boys," who go about to interrupt ritualistic services. The London *Truth* prints some verses which show how the ungodly grow mirthful over the incessant rows. The lines describe the holy evangelical zeal with which ritualistic practices are put down.

How to finance imperialism is beginning to exercise the English. The estimates of expenditure for the coming year show an increase of nearly $30,000,000, nearly all of which is chargeable to the growing responsibilities of empire. All authorities agree that there will be a large deficit unless resort be had to new taxation. There will be new taxation, undoubtedly, for English finance pays as it goes, not having learned from us the art of borrowing to cover up deficits. The Conservatives, however, are putting on a bold face, and are saying that the Chancellor of the Exchequer will have a fine chance to show his constructive genius by devising new taxes to meet the enlarged expenditure. Yet it is a maxim, as old, at least, as Burke, that it is impossible to tax and to please. The people who have to pay Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's clever taxes cannot be expected to be lost in admiration of his great talents for finance. Labouchere put the case with inelegant bluntness when he said in Parliament that the British workman would rather have an untaxed pot of beer than all the glory to be got out of all the wars on earth.

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THE SITUATION.

On the 27th of June, 1898, Admiral Dewey sent a telegram to Secretary Long, in which, after speaking kindly of Aguinaldo, he said:

"My relations with him are cordial, but I am not in his confidence. The United States has not been bound in any way to assist insurgents by any act or promises, and he is not, to my knowledge, committed to assist us. I believe he expects to capture Manila without my assistance, but doubt ability, they not yet having many guns. *In my opinion these people are far superior in their intelligence, and more capable of self-government, than the natives of Cuba; and I am familiar with both races.*"

Admiral Dewey was then and has been ever since considered our best authority on the condition and capacity of the Filipinos. There was correspondence during the subsequent half-year from several other officials, but from none whose word concerning our new possessions in the East was as much respected as Dewey's, for no other who was consulted had been as long in that region and had had as much opportunity for observation. This is not saying that, in our own opinion, an Admiral who has served off the coast is, as a general rule, the best adviser about the condition and capacity of a people. But concerning the Philippines Dewey has been, since he won his battle, a veritable pope for all American politicians. Any one of them who set himself up against him, would have been visited with popular reprobation.

Six months later—that is, on the 21st of December—before the treaty was ratified by the Senate, before he had any authority under it, except what he derived under the protocol, from his place as a military commander, President McKinley issued a proclamation announcing the cession of the "future control, disposition, and government" of the Philippine Islands to the United States by Spain, knowing well at the time that the Filipinos did not acknowledge Spain's right to cede them, knowing well also that Spain did not possess them *de facto*, knowing from Admiral Dewey's account of Aguinaldo and his countrymen that they were persons worthy to be consulted, and knowing that the step he was taking was important enough to need some formal sign of public assent which it had not received. He then made the comical announcement that though he came to take possession by force, and would kill anybody who resisted him, he came "not as an invader or as a conqueror, but as a friend," well knowing that a man who lands on foreign soil with an armed force against the will of the inhabitants or without the consent of the *de-facto* government, is, in the eye of the international lawyer, and in every other eye, both a "conqueror and invader," and cannot by any sort of proclamation rid himself of that character and take on any other.

After a few days' waiting to see whether he really meant what he had said, open resistance began. We had to fight for our "cession," and are now daily fighting. We have "victories" every day, and the enemy is being "driven back" in fine style, but he rarely, from the beginning, shows much disinclination to be "driven," and when we capture a "city," he burns it. In short, he gives every sign which a feeble people can give, that he is determined to be free; he despises the great McKinley's proclamation, and imitates fairly well our own performances when we were struggling to be free and George III. was telling us he was no "conqueror," and, though he would kill anybody who resisted him, he would be a father to any one who was obedient to him.

The resemblance goes further. It appears that there was exactly the same sort of people at home in England 100 years ago, hallooing George on to his "victories," that we have here to-day encouraging the great McKinley in his wars. We know it because we have exact descriptions of them from Burke. One was of the Griggs kind, who were sick of an honest, industrious life, and wanted to rule somebody and make somebody unhappy, and strut about as a "sovereign" and "superior," and loaf and cackle on "glory-crowned heights." There was another kind which we have also among us. Here is Burke's account of it. It cannot be printed too often:

"But I cannot conceive any existence under Heaven (which in the depths of its wisdom tolerates all sorts of things) that is more truly odious and disgusting than an impotent, helpless creature, without civil wisdom or military skill, without a consciousness of any other qualification for power but his servility to it, bloated with pride and arrogance, calling for battles which he is not to fight, contending for a violent dominion which he can never exercise, and satisfied to be himself mean and miserable in order to render others contemptible and wretched."

We hate to think it, but this seems to us to recall the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, the "Peace Commissioner," and his young men, exactly. Their attitude towards the poor Filipinos is dreadfully haughty. To their great minds the Filipinos are nothing but "children." Their appetite for "victories" over them is insatiable, and they help our troops by calling Aguinaldo scurrilous names, and yet all the inquiries we have been able to make satisfy us that his career is at least as respectable as that of the Hon. Whitelaw Reid. So the world goes on. From age to age men practise the old rascalities and croon the old fallacies. But, though we have no proof on the subject, we cannot help thinking that George's idiots were more susceptible of shame than ours, probably because they generally read more and knew more, though Burke accuses them of "dull uniformity in mischief."

MR. M'KINLEY AND CONGRESS.

Mr. McKinley has now got his first Congress off his hands, and it is a good time to ask how his theory of the proper relation between President and Congress has stood the two years' wear and tear. What his theory is he has left us in no doubt. By private and public utterance, by acts which speak louder than words, he has made it clear to all the world. First of all, there was to be, while he was President, none of that incessant disagreement and quarrelling between the Executive and Congress which marked and marred the second administration of Mr. Cleveland. Instead of an irritable and pig-headed President, we were to have one all suavity and of infinite tact; and instead of an Executive and Congress at perpetual loggerheads, we were to see the two moving on in spheric harmony. Distinct notice of the change to come was served in Mr. McKinley's inaugural, when he said: "I do not sympathize with the sentiment that Congress in session is dangerous to our business interests." And there was a veritable cry, "I'm wid ye, me byes!" in his first annual message to Congress, of which the opening sentence was: "It gives me pleasure to extend greeting to the Fifty-fifth Congress, . . . with many of whose Senators and Representatives I have been associated in the legislative service."

There spoke tact personified, but let us ask how much better has tact fared than scolding in persuading Congress to cooperate with the President. People used to point shudderingly to the list of things which Mr. Cleveland asked Congress to do but which it refused to do. That was all to end with the advent of sweet reasonableness in the White House. But did it end? Has not Mr. McKinley as long a list of measures contemptuously flung back at him by Congress as Mr. Cleveland had in the same length of time? To begin with the extraordinary session of the Fifty-fifth Congress, the President was twice rebuffed by Congress in the lamentable Cleveland style. He strongly urged the Senate to ratify the arbitration treaty, but that instrument was as contumeliously killed as if the request had been made by a sour and headstrong Executive, instead of one all compact of sweetness and light. But the most cruel fate befell Mr. McKinley's special message to Congress, sent in on July 24, 1897. In it he appeared to rise to the full height of his constitutional prerogative of recommending legislation, and solemnly said to Congress: "This subject [currency reform] should receive the attention of Congress at its special session. It ought not to be postponed until the regular session." But did Congress heed these words of the oily voice any more than it did the raucous cries which used to reach it from the other end of Pennsylvania Avenue? Not at all; it made haste to adjourn with mocking comments both on the measure and the man who had

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urged it. Cross old Cleveland could not have fared worse.

One has but to turn to President McKinley's second annual message to find a long record of measures pressed by him upon Congress only to be ignored or defeated. He confidently called on Congress to pass the War Department's army bill, but had to see it torn to pieces as by wolves. He urged the passage of the Nicaragua Canal bill, but pass it did not. He advocated shipping subsidies, but neither house did him the courtesy to advance the bill as far as third reading. He solemnly adjured Congress to pass a bill for the government of Hawaii, but neither House nor Senate paid any more attention than as if it had been only the sound of the wind blowing over the Capitol. In a last despairing appeal, he besought Congress, in a special message, to lay a cable to the Hawaiian Islands, which he said there was "a paramount necessity" it should do before the close of the session. Again a Republican House told a Republican President go hang, as far as the bill was concerned. We repeat: blundering, irascible Mr. Cleveland did not fail more ludicrously to get Congress to do what he wanted.

But if suavity and gracious blandishments did not wheedle Congress into doing what it was bound not to do, how did Congress succeed in dealing with tact and yielding grace in the White House? Alack, here is a different tale to tell! The first thing Congress extorted from a tactful Executive was a war. This is conceded on all hands. Mr. McKinley's apologists and panegyrists alike have declared that but for Congress there would have been no war with Spain. Congress, as Mr. Boutelle has explained, "held a stop-watch" on the President. It gave him just so many hours to produce a war. It was deaf to his entreaties. He might be very suave with Congress, but Congress was inexorable with him. A war in forty-eight hours, was the ultimatum, or we make war not only on Spain, but on you. Never was a tactful President in such distress; but he duly produced the necessary war before the time was up. Since then, Congress has gone on conquering and to conquer. It now knows its man, and knows that it has got him down. Having dictated a war, it is a small thing to dictate all appointments, to make a civil-service-reform President sign a law throwing the census to the spoilsmen, to take everything it wants, and give nothing in return, even burking, in one final kick at the Executive, his whole list of promotions in the army and navy. A tactful President flat on his back, with Congress dancing gayly on his stomach—that is the spectacle we have at the end of the first two years of the new régime. But Mr. McKinley likes it. He boasts himself the "servant" of Congress, and he will not even insist on having one afternoon a week or on receiving callers in the kitchen.

The simple truth is, of course, that Congress has been engaged for years in an insidious attack upon the Constitutional prerogatives of the President. Just as it tried to break down judicial independence by impeaching federal judges, early in the century, so it began the assault upon the independence of the President by the impeachment of Johnson in 1868. Since then subtler methods have been resorted to. Under Grant and his Republican successors, the contest went on with various ups and downs until finally, under Harrison, Congress had got the Executive about where it wanted him. The veto power was practically abandoned, and the appointing power was practically surrendered. Because Mr. Cleveland reasserted Presidential prerogatives, Congress pursued and vilified him as it did, though it could not bend him. At last he retired, and a man after its own heart came into office. Mr. McKinley and Congress are at one, but Congress is the one. The record we have cited, and the facts open to the knowledge of all, make that plain. By the time President McKinley has got his buffeting from another Congress, even he may begin to perceive that the only safe course for the President is to follow the clear directions of the Constitution; to insist upon his own rights and powers, and to respect those of Congress; very sure all the while that the only result of trying to make the Congressional lion lie down in peace with the Presidential lamb is to place the latter snugly in the stomach of the former.

GET THE BEEF CONTRACTS.

Every day's results in the beef inquiry make it imperative that the court should not cease its investigations till it obtains the contracts which Alger and Eagan made with the beef-packers or canners. Let us see what these contracts contain and what the dates of them are. As to the quality of much of the beef, there is no longer any doubt. The testimony taken on Saturday and Sunday greatly strengthened all that had preceded it. A former employee of one of the canning firms testified that he had seen two carloads of canned beef which had been returned some time in May as unfit for use. "When the cars were opened," he said "many of the cans were found to have burst. Maggots were crawling everywhere. The stench was so bad that ammonia had to be used to kill it." The same witness also testified that no Government inspectors had ever examined the canned beef, but that he and other employees had themselves put on inspection-labels. Other witnesses in the employ of the packing company corroborated this testimony.

At Sunday's session of the court, at Leavenworth, Kan., the first direct testimony was given that chemicals were used in preparing some of the canned beef. Sergeant Edward Mason of Troop A, First United States Cavalry, who served as regimental commissary-sergeant in Florida and Cuba during the war, testified that some of the refrigerated meat which he drew for rations looked "as if it had been painted over with something like paraffine wax; had a light coating on the outside"; that he objected to the color of the meat, and refused to accept it; and that the agent of the packing company told him that it had been treated with "preservatine," a chemical which the company used to preserve its meat. He testified further that the meat smelled bad, had a bad appearance, and was undoubtedly spoiled; and that the agent assured him that the "preservatine" did not hurt it, and advised him to cut off the outside, since the inside, near the bone, would be all right.

No one who has followed the testimony to the present point can question the accuracy of the statement by a prominent army officer, cited in the *Tribune's* Washington correspondence on Sunday: "I think the people of the country are satisfied that the truth of every one of Gen. Miles's allegations has been more than proved." If the President or Secretary Alger has any doubts on this point, he need only to sound public sentiment a little to have them removed. So far as the quality of the beef which our soldiers received is concerned, there is little need of further testimony. That part of the case is proved. But there are other points upon which light is needed and should be forthcoming. The prominent army officer quoted by the *Tribune* makes other statements in its columns which are more serious than any which have yet been published. He declares that in May and June last "a number of contractors proposed to the Commissary Department to furnish beef on the hoof in Cuba and Porto Rico, the same as every other army had received"; that one contractor had been in Cuba and Porto Rico, and had learned that beef on the hoof could be supplied without difficulty; that he went to the Commissary-General with this information, and was informed by him that "he had to give the contract to Swift & Co.—mark this, had to give the contract to the Western firm"; that he told the Commissary-General that refrigerated beef could not be used in Cuba unless it was artificially preserved, and the latter replied that a way had been found by the Chicago contractors to preserve it so that it would keep for seventy-two hours.

Here are several points which should be thoroughly investigated. Why was it that Eagan "had to give the contract to Swift & Co."? Who was it that assured him that the contractors had dis-

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covered a process which would preserve the meat for seventy-two hours? Why was it that the contracts said only twenty-four hours? We are glad to see that Eagan has changed his mind about going to Hawaii, and has stopped at San Francisco. He should be summoned again by the Court of Inquiry and given an opportunity to tell all he knows about these matters. The identity of the *Tribune's* prominent army officer should be disclosed, and the witnesses he mentions should be summoned. Eagan swore that the twenty-four-hour limit was an "error" in the contracts, but the packing firm has sworn that this was not the truth; that seventy-two hours was never thought of. Let us get the two parties together and see which is telling the truth. Let us also have the contracts produced and all the correspondence between the contracting parties. It is very plain that only the surface of this infamous business has been disturbed. The country will be satisfied with nothing except the whole truth.

It should be noted that the Court of Inquiry is confining its attention to the beef supply only. It does not investigate any other branch of the commissary service during the war. It does not go into the question of transportation, of camp location and equipment, or into the quality of other provisions than beef. We are assured that if the quality of the flour which Alger and Eagan furnished were to be investigated, results not unlike those obtained in the beef matter would be achieved. As to camp location and equipment, nobody has any doubt about a great mass of scandal existing there. We are able to understand now why the President did not wish to have Congress conduct an investigation, and why he appointed his absurd War Investigating Commission. He did not desire to reveal the truth, but to smother it, and he would have succeeded but for Gen. Miles. Had Miles not collected evidence on the beef question, and had he not forced its publication in spite of army etiquette, we should not have known what we know to-day about that outrage upon our soldiers. But is not the truth about Alger's and Eagan's operations in other directions to be brought out? Does the President still think that the truth can be concealed; that his treatment of Alger and Eagan is a sufficient answer to all evidence that can be brought against them? What he ought to do is to call for a court of inquiry upon Eagan's whole conduct by a body which should command the confidence of the country. Will he do this? Will he stop thinking about delegates long enough to think about the soldiers to whom Eagan and Alger caused suffering and death by their foul and poisoned beef? Delegates are all well enough, but they can only give a nomination, and a nomination which does not receive votes on election day is a worthless thing.

THE CUSTOM-HOUSE VEXATION.

Shayne, the furrier, delivered an address on Thursday afternoon in which, among his numerous admissions, he confessed that he had put detectives on the docks to see how his "regulation" was enforced, and that his recommendation to the Treasury to provide a decent place for the examination of his victims was not attended to. He says:

> "The matter of proper facilities for examining the baggage has received the attention of the committee, and it recommends that a system similar to the one in operation at Liverpool be inaugurated, and that a room be set aside upon the steamship dock where trunks may be examined without danger of injury to their contents and for the comfort of the passengers."

To this, probably the only civilized, rational remedy Shayne has ever suggested, the Treasury, we know, pays not the slightest attention. The examination continues with the increased stringency recommended by Shayne, but in the old place and in the old way. Shayne knew well that it was not attended to, but that the examination had been made more exasperating—that is, that the Treasury promptly altered its regulation to oblige Shayne, but made no alteration to oblige the passengers; and the brave Shayne, knowing well what was going on at the wharves on the arrival of every steamer, and what influence he seemed to have with the Treasury, said never a word.

Now what kind of place is it on which American ladies are obliged to submit lists of their gowns and underclothing to Shayne's detectives and to custom-house inspectors? It is an open wharf, swept by the prevailing winds, traversed from end to end incessantly by furious trucks wheeled by the stevedores unloading baggage and freight from the ship by which these passengers have arrived; with a floor whose only cleansing, after a hundred cargoes have been discharged on it, consists in a sweeping by a 'longshoreman. The greatest confusion prevails on it after the arrival of a passenger steamer, owing to the long detention of the passengers by the custom-house. There are rarely enough inspectors after one of the crowded ships comes in. They not only examine baggage, but they find contraband or dutiable articles, "declared" or not "declared." They value them, and accompany the passenger to the office on the lower end of the wharf to see that he pays the duty. This all takes a great deal of time. To find his baggage, to see that it is got together, to find an officer to examine it, to have it examined, requires an able-bodied man in rude health. For a lone or delicate woman it is almost as terrible an ordeal as landing on a piratical Moorish coast. We have known a case in which a passenger reaching the wharf with an ordinary amount of personal baggage at eight o'clock in the evening, did not get to his bed until 2 A. M., and he was a vigorous man.

And how is the work of examination done? Some of the inspectors are, of course, men of natural politeness; who dislike their work and make it as little disagreeable as possible, but the proverb, "Like master like man," applies to the custom-house as well as to other places. We doubt if any officer is ever exhorted by his superior to be polite or considerate, or to consult the sex or character or place of a passenger in the community. The whole tone of the service is rude and barbarous and uncivilized. The lesson the officers are taught is constantly to be rigid, to be suspicious, to see in every passenger a possible smuggler, and treat him or her accordingly, in manner and action. The spirit of the custom-house is the most "un-American" we know. If we wanted to give a foreigner a good idea of what is meant by the word, we should advise him to frequent the wharves on the arrival of steamers. It is not surprising that this is the way of the inspectors. They know perfectly well that Shayne and his tailors are more influential with the Treasury than any number of travelling American citizens, and last year they found that this man had actually succeeded in getting the law altered for his own benefit, and they found his detectives on the wharf seeing that it was enforced with vigor; in other words, he had had a share in the government handed over to him. Mr. Howell's denial that the Treasury had framed the regulation for the benefit of a class was plainly not as veracious as the average custom-house oath.

It must be borne in mind that the law nowhere hints that it is a criminal or even immoral thing to go to Paris or London, and while there to make purchases. Both the McKinley and the Dingley tariffs are meant simply to collect revenue, not to reform manners. Therefore, it is not an offence in law or morals, as Shayne not unnaturally tries to believe, to purchase things abroad as long as you pay the legal duty on them when you bring them home. If large numbers of people, including the "merchants and manufacturers," did not buy things abroad, neither McKinley nor Dingley would have any revenue at all. Therefore all treatment of decent people who travel as in any sense bad citizens because Shayne and his gang do not make more money out of them, is simply ludicrous. The proposition that his neighbors owe Shayne a living in the way he chooses himself, may do for a Shayne lecture, but Mr. Dooley is the only proper person to deal with it.

Another feature of the examination must not be passed without notice. Things purchased abroad continue to be

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property in the eye of the law, even if Shayne does not like them. In collecting taxes on them, therefore, the infliction of damage on them that can be avoided is illegal, besides being Turkish or Moorish. It is from these great principles a fair inference that when ladies arrive at our wharves with expensive dresses purchased in Paris or London, packed carefully by a professional packer, a functionary whom Shayne probably thinks a vicious person, to let a man plunge his hands into them, and possibly turn them out on the dirty wharf under the feet of the stevedores, although the owner may still have to take them to Chicago or San Francisco, surely should be a thing to be avoided somehow by an honest Treasury. And yet the occurrence of this sort of thing nearly every day does not seem to attract any attention. No civilized building is provided for the examination, no counter to put the baggage on, no numbered compartments to assist the passengers to find the baggage, no privacy for those whose underclothing is turned out, no protection from draughts or observation. Every alteration or change is to please Shayne, the furrier, although he would doubtless be just as well satisfied if a collection for him was taken up from the passengers.

REMBRANDT AT THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

LONDON, March 3, 1899.

In writing of the two recent Rembrandt exhibitions, I pointed out that at Amsterdam and in the Royal Academy the etchings were not included, and that, therefore, the collections could not be considered completely representative. Rembrandt had his rivals among painters in his own day, but never among etchers until the present century, so that to omit his prints is to leave out perhaps his most important work. Now, however, Mr. Sidney Colvin of the British Museum has supplied this omission by a special show of all the etchings, and the drawings, too, belonging to the print room.

When a special show is held at the Museum, it is usually many long months in the preparation, and, that the care and pains bestowed upon it may not be wasted, it remains open for a still longer time. I believe the Rembrandts will be on view in the white room where they have been arranged for a couple of years. Consequently, many an American, forced to miss the paintings in Amsterdam and London, will still have an opportunity to see the prints. And it is an opportunity not to be lost. It is one thing to dive into portfolios and volumes of etchings, quite another to find the work you want to study excellently hung, according to dates and periods and states, on the wall before you, where, if you are an artist, you can really look at it at your ease and leisure; if you are a collector, you are furnished with all possible and available information. Besides, nowhere is there a more complete series of these prints than in the British Museum, and nowhere, perhaps, so many fine impressions. In the notes to the catalogue, Mr. Colvin explains that the collections at Amsterdam and the National Library in Paris are as complete, and that "those of the Albertina and the Royal Library of Vienna, taken together, may be regarded as constituting a fourth public collection of equal rank; while scarcely less rich than any of them is the private cabinet of Baron Edmond de Rothschild in Paris. Both Amsterdam and the Paris Library possess a few unique prints, or states of prints, which are not in London; but on the whole the British Museum stands probably first of all in the quality and high preservation of the specimens which compose it."

This, really, is what strikes you above all else, the wonderful beauty of by far the greater number of impressions. Indeed, it is impossible to quote any examples in particular where such a high average is maintained, and, unless you happen to be a collector, the quality of a print will be of more importance to you than its rarity. But in studying a certain master's work, it is interesting to be able to follow the gradual development of his genius and the accompanying changes and modifications in his method and technique. And Mr. Colvin has adopted the one arrangement that can help you to do so. He has grouped the prints in three divisions, corresponding to the three periods usually accepted; the first, when Rembrandt depended chiefly upon the acid; the second, when he worked more and more in dry point; and the third, when the acid was given up almost entirely for dry point. Each group is hung chronologically, as well as can be, when dates are not always known. States and impressions are placed side by side. And you have but to turn to the catalogue for every fact, authority, and reference in connection with each. Altogether, the arrangement and the catalogue could not easily be better, and I am sure Mr. Colvin will not be disappointed in his hope that the present opportunities for examination and comparison "may enable students to come nearer to a complete agreement than has hitherto been possible."

But the agreement of students, after all, means less to the artist than the actual work before him, upon the merit and perfection of which he decides for himself without the aid of catalogues and compilers. And to follow the series from the first little heads, mainly of historic interest, to the last incomparable portraits, is to feel, with something of exultation, the greatness of the master who, in his etching as in his painting, steadily progressed, steadily developed and strengthened his powers, reserving his masterpieces for his old age, when lesser men would be content to think their life's task done—for the years during which Fate was most cruel to him, and he was all but forgotten and his work no longer in demand save with the few. It is to learn, too, that it was by the same means as in his painting that he achieved perfection: by the same tireless work and industry, the same close study of the life about him, of the *thing seen*, the same restless experiment. He began by etching the old, familiar sitters for his early portraits; his father, his mother, sometimes Saskia, himself again and again and ever again, under every aspect and in every costume or disguise; little plates that are often dry and cold and tight, with not a suggestion of the flame, the ardor, Fromentin thought he had always difficulty in suppressing, but that led him to the knowledge, the freedom, the distinction of the great plates of this period—the "Good Samaritan," the "Raising of Lazarus," the "Descent from the Cross." Then came the period when, just as he was becoming keener and keener about dry point, he turned oftener and oftener to the country, with its windmills and canals and old farmhouses and little towns, for motives, and produced the larger number of his landscapes—the "Three Trees" among them—landscapes in which you see all Holland, and for which some authorities account by imagining a flight to the country as a refuge from the sorrows and troubles that crowded upon him after the death of Saskia. This was the period of the portraits of Jan Six and Ephraim Bonus and Cornelis Anslo and Jan Asselyn, the period of the "Hundred Guilder Print," of which the British Museum boasts two unrivalled impressions in its two early states. And then come the perfect plates of his later years, the marvellous group of portraits of Jan Lutma, of Arnold Tholinx, of Thomas Jacobsz Haaring, and, supreme even among these, of Jacob Haaring; and also the large religious subjects, the "Christ Presented to the People," in no less than six states (one of the plates, it seems to me, he did not improve by working on it), and the "Christ Crucified between the Two Thieves," in four states, showing the differences that have been such a source of discussion among the authorities. I think most artists must agree with Sir Seymour Haden that the later states, with the mystery and gloom and tragedy of the deeper shadows—of the darkness that fell upon the earth with the consummation of the great sacrifice—represent the true and ultimate effect which Rembrandt had in view from the first, and were not the result of caprice or of the interference of another and inferior hand. The series ends with those final studies from the nude which rely upon even nobler qualities than realistic truth for their beauty.

The collection alone would be sufficient to establish Rembrandt's preëminence as an etcher. But, to emphasize his supremacy, Mr. Colvin is also showing, in the same room, the work of his contemporaries, and some of his immediate predecessors—a series which is notable enough in itself. There are the "Beggars," the "Nobility of Lorraine," and the "Miseries of War," by Callot; the classical landscapes by Claude, the portraits by Van Dyck. There are the prints of the Dutchmen who were more or less under his influence, Livens, Van Vliet, Ferdinand Bol, and of the Dutchmen who reveal small trace of having studied him, Ruysdael and Albert Cuyp, Paul Potter and Van der Velde—prints of unquestioned interest: some too well known to need detailed description, others not so well known, but curious historically. For instance, the color prints of Hercules Seghers, who was the first to experiment in color-printing from a copper plate, using, however, but one color in the printing, and tinting the paper either before or after the impression was taken, with sometimes delightful effect; and whose etchings were not only studied by Rembrandt, but, in one case certainly, altered and worked upon by him. Rich in interest as this collection is, however, there is not one of the artists who can stand the test of comparison with Rembrandt. The elegance of Van Dyck is overshadowed by the simplicity and dignity of the "Lutma" and the two Haarings; the stateliness of Claude

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seems stilted and artificial by the side of the spontaneous little impressions of quiet Dutch waters and pastures; the animals of Cuyp and Paul Potter are wooden and lifeless when you come to them from Rembrandt's amazing rendering of "The Hog." I think Mr. Colvin would have given a still more useful comparative study had he hung one or two modern masters instead of Rembrandt's contemporaries.

Of the drawings I have said nothing, because I have already written of those exhibited at Amsterdam and the Royal Academy. Of course, the British Museum collection is quite distinct, and if, in certain single examples, it cannot compete with the treasures of Mr. Heseltine and M. Bonnat, in others it far surpasses them. But the main characteristics are always the same. Here, again, you find Rembrandt working in all sorts of mediums—in chalk, pen-and-ink, pencil, sepia; and here again you find the drawings falling, naturally, into two divisions: the studies from life and nature, the sketches of preliminary notes for his etchings and paintings. They also follow a chronological order as far as is possible, for he seldom dated his drawings, and they also point to continual progress, and explain the means by which he achieved it. In them, perhaps more than in his paintings and prints, you are conscious of his indefatigable, his ceaseless habit of work, his constant observation, his uninterrupted concern with the life about him, and his quenchless love for the beauty of the commonplace. You have once more a series of portraits; once more his renderings of animals—for one, that incomparable elephant with all its clumsiness, its modelling, its loose, flapping hide, expressed in a few lines in black chalk; once more his landscapes, a whole countryside in its infinite variety put down with a few strokes of the pen. And, when he was not going direct to nature, he was learning all he could from other masters, as is explained by his copy of Mantegna and his facsimiles, you might say, of the designs of Persian artists. Of all men, Rembrandt seems most to prove the disputed truth that genius is but the genius for industry.

I have given a mere outline of the exhibition, but you cannot in one short letter dispose of work that offers really a study for a lifetime. I have, therefore, endeavored merely to give some slight idea of the completeness of the British Museum collection, and the admirable manner in which it is now arranged for the benefit of the public, and to remind the American coming to London within the next year or so of the pleasure and the unparalleled opportunity for the study of Rembrandt that await him. As for the catalogue prepared by Mr. Colvin, it will be in its way as indispensable to future students of the etchings as the works of the authorities whom it so freely and appropriately quotes.

N. N.

ONE LETTER MORE FROM "ROBERT."

FLORENCE, March 2, 1899.

My letters! all dead paper, . . . mute and white!
And yet they seem alive and quivering
Against my tremulous hands which loose the string
And let them drop down on my knee to-night.
This said, . . . he wished to have me in his sight
Once, as a friend: this fixed a day in spring
To come and touch my hand . . . a simple thing,
Yet I wept for it! this, ... the paper's light,
Said, *Dear, I love thee;* and I sank and quailed
As if God's future thundered on my past.
This said, *I am thine*—and so its ink has paled
With lying at my heart that beat too fast.
And this . . . O Love, thy words have ill availed
If, what this said, I dared repeat at last!

Thus wrote and felt Elizabeth Barrett in those "finest sonnets ever penned," which only long after they were married did she ever show to Robert Browning, such being the intense reticence of her love that all of it could not be told, even in her letters to him—those letters which we, and you too, of course, have now all in full—not "dead paper," but alive with burning words; not mute, but assuring every heart that can rise upwards for a moment, that love is a holy, perfect, lasting thing, "the beginning," the doing, the being, the end of life. The first feeling on taking up the volume was an irresistible shudder at what she would feel—if those lonely ashes, weighted with that pompous marble cenatoph of Leighton's, protected by the cypresses, sheltered by the soft, watching hills, could feel aught of earth's toil and turmoil—to see their two hearts turned inside out for the public gaze. Very bitterly, indeed, I fear, if she were mortal still; and Robert would be bitterer and more savage, for he distinctly forbade all friends to publish a line of her letters, even to themselves, and I for one have strictly obeyed him, even to the point of burning many which he wished to be burnt, and of never printing one and more intrusted to me by the dear, good, noble niece of Mrs. Jameson, "Geddie" Macpherson, to whom, when publishing her aunt's life, Robert refused permission to give the letters written after his beloved became his own.

One of his, at least, I shall give you now, for certainly the United States is worthy of everything that belongs to the Brownings. There she was loved and appreciated far more than in England; and as for Robert, it does not seem to me that he was ever appreciated at all in England, save by a chosen few—Miss Barrett among the first—until after her death. After the first horrified feeling of what seemed a desecration and a sacrilege, and a fearful hunger to possess the volumes and a quiet place and time to savor them, came a more reasonable feeling. If, as they both so intensely believed, there is a world beyond the grave where lovers reunite, and if they knew how many hearts are and will be gladdened by their words to one another, would they, indeed, be vexed? No, they would be—are—too happy to grudge such joy to mortal misery. So we may read and enjoy, I think, without remorse. To those who knew the Brownings intimately, in their own loved home here in Florence, or even during their sojourns in London or in Paris (it was always home, for they were never divided save in death), these letters will teach little as to their mutual relations one to the other; but to those to whom this rare privilege has been denied, the letters, read together with their scant biographies, will teach that where great, pure, and noble souls do find their "other half," their lives and works run harmoniously, and rise soaring towards the sun on love-sustaining wings.

The marriage took place at Marylebone Church, on the 12th of September, 1846. The bride returns alone; they are not to meet except at the railway station. Every hour comes a new fear lest the newspapers may publish the marriage and she be yet carried off. Robert has made a mistake in her name; he, who never made any mistakes afterwards, made several then, in trains and steamer time-tables. Finally, the last day but one comes: "September 19th. By to-morrow at this time I shall have you only to love me, my beloved!—*you* only, as if one said *God* only. And we shall have Him beside, I pray of him!" And the prayer was answered. They met, started, and Mrs. Jameson, in Paris with her niece, "who had left the invalid in London satisfied with the sofa and silence," receives a note to say that they are in Paris en route for Italy. They stay in Paris a fortnight, then travel all together to Pisa, where BA, "not only better but transformed," is to spend the winter alone with her beloved. And now I think all readers of the entrancing correspondence will like to have Robert's first letter to Mrs. Jameson, the kind soul who so rejoiced in their union:

PISA, November 30, 1846.

DEAR, GOOD AUNT NINA: Your note properly ushered in the sunny day, this morning. I fully meant to have written to you, but this is better fortune, to get an answer first (hibernial); so on the strength of the continued gladnesses of the weather and the letter, we have just been driving for *due orette* round the city and suburbs, and BA comes in with an appetite for dinner, *she* says, and I am not so inclined to doubt it as usually. Did she tell you that I discovered the famous walk on the dyke, and that it is really worth its fame, being very pretty and characteristic, and extending quite to the foot of the mountain? We got out of the carriage and climbed on to it just now, but were too far from a curious old church and tower I wanted to reach. Well, you seem to be enjoying Florence, which is quite right—we and everybody shall have our share of whatever you get there; but if we are the more happy that you remember us in the midst of your especial good, we are not at all surprised, I beg you to know, for we have long since made up our minds about the nature of your attachment to us, and having taken up BA, and me on account of her a little (I go with her, observe, as a serious makeweight), we feel more, that you will not let us go, now, after these travels and trials—no, not for ever so much; but even if you tried to do so, you would find it a hard job, so tightly we will cling!

The day before yesterday we got the kindest of notes from Mr. Kenyon, in which he speaks with great satisfaction and delight of the letter he received from you. He was, at the time of writing, engaged in all sorts of good offices on our account. I also was favored with a letter from Procter. We have been found out here by one or two people, but by Providence's help they don't much disturb us; one of them informed us that Pisa had never been so vold of strangers as at the present time, at least within his recollection, while the two last seasons were "prosperous of English" beyond example; hence the additional numbers of apartments to let, and the increased price of them. It is very soothing on a rainy day, when one happens to suffer from bile, to see every blessed board about *appigionarsi*, etc., etc., still dangling in the wind. Here we go on very well, certainly very quietly, although Wilson [the maid] makes from time to time a discovery that sets one's hair on end—about ways of living and sleeping, *e sopra tutto* cooking; all very new and dreadful. M. Verrucci called once and means to call again. These are our events! or no! for another event is the opening of the completed railway to Lucca from this place, so that one may go without any trouble whatever, and had the weather been less outrageous on Monday or Saturday, now I think of it, we meant to go and assist at the exposition of the "*volto sacro*." Next week perhaps we may manage a trip there. Meantime, we shall wait your letters with a modified impatience (don't you know that a professor in the quadrant issued prospectuses engaging to teach people, at so much per head, "dancing, deportment, and a modified gallantry to the fair sex"?). Seemingly the list you promise will be of the greatest service to us, and pray let me know when you mean to leave Florence for Rome, as you must do, must! I spoke at the post-office about your letters (one was forwarded to you a week ago or a little more), and shall continue to speak.

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Dear Geddie is the best, most affectionate girl in the world. BA tells me to say she thanks and loves her heartily, and I put my love into the parcel whether she notices or no. Have I told you in all these words, directly and not by implication, that BA is admirably well, and more and more inclined to sleep after dinner? She desires me to give, first, her whole love, and, next, the good news that your strap is found in Wilson's baggage. I am sure I shall not object to such an article being got quietly out of the house, for there are certain uses to which BA might turn a strap; but I need not tell you she shall not see this letter. God bless you and your dear Geddie, on account of BA and your ever affectionate R. B.

Mrs. MacPherson, the "Geddie" of her aunt and friends, spent the last year of her checkered life with me in Rome, and died in my arms on the 24th of June, 1878. She had just completed the life of her aunt, Mrs. Jameson, and was much disappointed that Mr. Browning would not allow her to publish his wife's letters to Mrs. J. She gave them to me, with his, and this is the first to see the light. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

THE PRESIDENT AND HIS "ORDERS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is to be hoped that President McKinley will, as soon as he is rested, take prompt steps to have his "order" respecting removals from the classified service complied with by his subordinates. They have shown their admiration for his foreign policy, and extolled his wisdom and courage in general as an administrator, but they have not hesitated to ignore the proclamation of policy made by him in July, 1897, that "no removal shall be made from any position subject to competitive examination except for just cause, and upon written charges filed with the head of the department or other appointing officer, and of which the accused shall have full notice and an opportunity to make defence." The last report of the Civil-Service Commission shows that employees turned out of their places in spite of this order have been importuning the courts of the country—but generally in vain—for "injunctive relief."

Their remedy, as the judges have been obliged to tell them, can be obtained only at the White House. "I have no doubt," said one of them, "that the President may lay down rules for the internal policy of his administration, and may require his chief executive officers, dependent upon his pleasure for their tenure of office, to conform to them, or else to sever their official relations with him. . . . But the enforcement of such rules is a matter between the President and his cabinet, and not a matter for the courts."

The "disciplinary" method of enforcing such a rule is, of course, the only method, and President McKinley must have known this when he issued the order in question. If he did not intend to enforce it, the pity is that he promulgated it, for its frequent violation has brought reproach upon the act itself which every one supposed it was meant to render more efficacious. The Civil-Service Commission print in full case after case of the arbitrary dismissal of those who were protected by the terms of this rule. With most commendable courage they have promptly and earnestly protested against these illegal acts, and have brought their complaints, and ample evidence sustaining them, to the Secretaries in whose departments the outrages were committed, but in not a single case has punishment been administered, the wrong righted, or even the protest answered. Instead of resigning in a body, as they might with great propriety have done, the Commissioners have printed the whole correspondence, showing an invariable ignoring by the departments of their requests and protests, thereby in effect appealing to a sound public sentiment for their support.

It is not necessary to discuss here the legality of the executive orders placing restrictions upon the right of heads of departments to remove subordinates whom they are authorized by law to appoint. That point may be made by the cabinet officer himself when the promulgation of such orders is in contemplation. Courts, too, must necessarily consider it when they are asked to enforce such orders. But the refusal of bureau officers to require compliance with an order of the President of this character, because not convinced of its constitutionality, is so grossly impertinent and destructive of all order and discipline that one cannot understand how it can be endured for a moment. The Civil-Service Commission show in their report that this high ground is taken in the Treasury Department.

The Grosvenors in Congress have raged because President Cleveland waited until May, 1896, before he extended the classified service so as to include as subject to competitive examination the great bulk of Federal employees, inside and outside of Washington. But that genuine friend of civil-service reform, as is well known to many, was ready for this enlargement long before 1896. He was, above all things, however, regardful of the law, and had no intention of imposing upon the heads of the Washington departments restrictions which they were not inclined to accept. It was in 1896 that, by their coöperation, the various employees were classified who had not been classified by the civil-service act. In this revision that act requires their agency.

It was naturally supposed that President McKinley had in the same way secured the concurrence of his cabinet when, in the following year, he extended to *all* those embraced in his predecessor's classification a solemn exemption from the menaces of arbitrary power. But though Secretary Gage—to mention but one case—repeated this order to the various bureaus and branches of his service, it is almost an every-day occurrence that his collectors of revenue impudently thrust out Democrats and replace them with men of their own choice, in utter disregard of rules, orders, and department regulations. And when the Commission run to him with a full account of the violation, he remains silent and smiling. I. E.

March 15, 1899.

VIRTUE ENOUGH FOR ALL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Of "the revered McKinley" and his Philippine policy, may it not be said, as Warburton, Bishop of Gloucester, said of George the Third: "Let us private men preserve and improve the little we have left of private virtue; and, if one of those infected with the influenza of politics should ask me, 'What then becomes of your public virtue?' I would answer him with an old Spanish proverb: 'The King has enough for us all' "?

Respectfully, ALFALES YOUNG.

SALT LAKE CITY, March 15, 1899.

JUDGE KOHLSAAT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I regret to find in your columns of March 9 a statement to the effect that Judge C. C. Kohlsaat would not have been heard of in connection with the United States district judgeship had it not been that Mr. H. H. Kohlsaat had insisted on his brother being recognized.

You do a wrong to two men. No man on the local bench has stood higher in public esteem than Judge Kohlsaat of the Probate Court. This was recognized by the way he ran ahead of his ticket when reëlected last fall. Mr. H. H. Kohlsaat has consistently refused to ask any favors or patronage of the President. This I know.

Judge Kohlsaat was recommended, and his appointment urged, by many leading members of the Chicago bar. He is a man who would do honor to any position of trust and to any man appointing him. His appointment must have been a pleasure to the President, because of his personal and professional fitness. No rival for the position had the combined experience and character that were possessed by the appointee.

As a rabid civil-service-reform advocate and an anti-expansionist "to the limit," I hope you will correct your editorial.

Yours truly, WM. KENT.

MUNICIPAL VOTERS' LEAGUE,
CHICAGO, March 12, 1899.

"LEST WE FORGET."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: That the new revelation as to our manifest destiny is but little in accord with the second sober thought of a majority of our people, is hardly to be questioned. Our late wholly exceptional conjuncture being past, we naturally incline to return to our normal condition, without sacrifice of substantial principles, the inheritance of an Anglo-Saxon race. These principles are not so modern as may be supposed. They found voice at a very early period of our history, when Spain was civilizing with slaughter and under the emblem of the cross the territories of northern South America (Guiana); and this is what Sir Walter Raleigh announced as the English Christian method of dealing with the people and territories of uncivilized regions. (The extract is from Hakluyt.)

"This much of subduing the Guianians: the means of procuring this come next to be considered, which ought to be just before God, according to our Christian profession and honorable among men according to the proceedings of our English nation. For it were far better with the help of our confederates under the defence of the Almighty to strengthen in our own countries, than to purchase our securitye by such practises as the Spaniards used in the conquest of the Indies. Therefore the president [precedent] of their dishonorable actions may not serve for our instructions.

"For which purpose I lay down this as a maxime (which yet upon better advice I am ready to retract). That no Christians may lawfully invade with hostility any heathenish people not under their allegiance, to kill, Spoile, and conquer them, only upon pretence of their

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[in]fidelity. My proses and reasons be these. In the beginning God, having made the World—reserving the heavens for his throne of Majesty, gave the earth and all therein, with the benefit yssuing from the sunne, the moone, and all the stars, to the sonnes of men as is manifest by the blessing of God upon Adam afterwards renewed unto Noah and his descendants, confirmed in part by God, himselfe to the posterity of wicked Ishmael afterwards to Nebuchadnezer in these words. I have made the earth, man and beast upon the ground by my great power, and have given it to whom it pleaseth me: But now I have given all these lands into the hands of Nebuchadnezer the King of Babell my servant, etc. To the like effect sayeth Daniel to Nebuchadnezer: O King Thou arte King of Kings, for the Lord of Heaven hath given the a Kingdom power strength glory &c. By all of which it seemeth to me very liquid and clear that by Gods ordinance the *believers* are not the only lords of the World, as being not able to people the 20th part of it, but that by the gift of God, Idolators, pagans and Godlesse persons bee intituled to the possession, and have a capacity to take, and an ability to hold a property in lands and goods as well as they, which being manifested by the former allegacions, it is against the rules of Justice (which giveth to every man his own) to deprive them of their goods, lands, libertyes or lives without just title thereunto. When Jepthe by his ambassadores showed to the King of Amon the righte that the Israelites had of invading the possessions of Amon he maketh not the pretence of their idolatry or Gentleisme, but because the God of Israel had given those lands unto them. The God of Israel (sayeth he) hath cast out the Amorites before his people of Israel, and wouldst thou possess it? Wouldst not thou possess that which Chemasth thy God giveth the to possess? So whomsoever the Lord God driveth out before us, them will we possess. But God hath given no Christians any such warrant, therefore thei may not do the like: as nether the good Kings of Israel or Juda unless just cause of wrongs from the Idolators received.

"Christians are commanded to doo good unto all men, and to have peace with all men, and to do as they would be done unto: To give none offense to one or other: And lastly Christ willed the desciples to pay tribute unto Ceaser, an infidell. He refused a Worldly Kingdom as not pertaining unto him—he reproved his desciples when they desired that fire might come down from heaven and destroy the Samaritans who refused to entertain him—Saying you know not what spirit you are of. The Son of Man is not come to destroy mens lives but to save them.

"*Therefore* no *Christian* prince under pretence of *Christianity* only, and of forcing of men to receive the gospell or renounce their impieties may attempt the invasion of any free people not under their vassaligé. For Christ gave not that power to christians as christians, which he himself as sovereign of all christians neither had or would take.

"By the Law of Nature and nations we agree that prescription or priority of possession only giveth right unto lands or goods against all strangers, Indefesibly by any, but the true owners.

"This much to confirm that opinion before delivered that Christians may not warrantably conquer Infidels upon pretence of their infidelity. But I hold it very reasonable and charitable to send preachers safely guarded it may bee to offer Infidels the gladd tidings of the gospell, which being refused by them (or peradventure the Infidells giving hard measure to the Preachers), this can ground no sufficient quarrel to overrun their countries."

Are the American people to accept the conclusion, now apparently just discovered, that we had not reached national completeness until the finishing stroke was to be accomplished by uniting the ship of state to a flotilla of Malay dependencies whose crew were resisting the encroachment?

C. H. Miner.

New London, Conn., March 14, 1899.

"THE LAW OF THE ROAD."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Had your correspondent, in the issue of March 9, 1899, writing on "The Law of the Road," consulted a file of *Notes and Queries*, he would have found two discussions of the question, the first in vols. 9, 11, and 12 of series 3, and the second in vols 3, 4, and 5 of series 6. In one of the first will be found the original and best version of the rhyme your correspondent quotes, which is there credited to Henry Erskine.

The encyclopædias merely state the fact that the rule is to keep to the right in nearly all civilized countries, except Great Britain and its colonies, without explanation, while the writers in *Notes and Queries*, curiously enough, are diametrically opposed to each other. One writer (series 6, vol. 4, page 34) suggests that the English rule is due to the fact that the wagoner, walking on the left of his horses, does not want to be caught between the wheels, and, therefore, pulls his horses towards him, thus turning to the left; while in other countries persons driving with reins are indifferent in the matter, and follow their "natural preference" for the right hand.

This view, however, is opposed by a subsequent writer (page 154 of the same volume), who is of the opinion that coachmen, and not wagoners, made the rule, and the advantage in turning to the left for the coachman is obvious. This agrees with an earlier and more complete explanation (series 3, vol. 11, page 531), which accounts for the English rule in the same way, and for the French rule by the fact that their stages were driven by postilions sitting on the left horse. It also agrees in principle with the explanation which I have heard assigned for the rule adopted in America, viz., that the convenience of the drivers of ox-teams (that being the chief mode of transportation) decided the question. It seems reasonable that they should wish to pass, especially on narrow roads, to the right in order that they might better judge the distance between wagons, that they might avoid being crushed out into the gutter or into deep snow, and that they might greet each other most conveniently.—Yours truly, C. W. A.

The John Crerar Library,
Chicago, March 16, 1899.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A correspondent of your paper, last week, in writing about "The Law of the Road," seeks to find a reason why, in New England, it is the custom, as well as the law, to turn to the right in passing. I can tell him what my father, more than sixty years ago, gave me as the reason. At that time nearly all the teaming was done by oxen. They could not be as accurately guided as horses, and turning to the right brought the drivers, who usually walked beside the team, on the inside, so that they could be sure not to come in collision.

As I drove, when a boy, a great deal, and could not see over the oxen to know how near the wagons were together, I could realize the reason, as well as advantage, of the practice, and I have no doubt that was the cause of turning to the right.

Respectfully yours, H. A. Stearns.

Pawtucket, R. I., March 14, 1899.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The origin of our different custom, I believe, is to be found in the almost universal use of oxen for draught purposes throughout this country in the earliest days of its settlement. With them no reins were employed; the guiding was by voice and whip. The right hand being the natural whip hand, it was most convenient that the driver should walk on the left of his oxen, the better to guide them by the whip; and, being on that side, he naturally turned his team to the right, as the English reinsman had turned to the left, in order that he might more surely avoid the danger of collision. The men on horseback, who would otherwise have continued to turn to the left if they had been free to follow their own convenience and their inherited English custom, could readily turn their horses to either side of the road, and thus adapted themselves to the requirement of the primitive American ox-team.

This rule of turning to the right became more firmly fixed when, later in the development of our country, especially in the South and West, the custom arose of driving several pairs of mules or horses to one vehicle or train of vehicles, by means of a single "jerk-line," as it was called, leading from the nigh horse of the front pair of mules to the driver, who rode the nigh wheel-horse. From his position he, like the ox-team driver, could best avoid accident by turning to the right. The very terms "nigh" and "off" horse which still prevail are the survivals of the same early ox-driving period, and designate the position of the horse with reference to the ox-team driver. Now that ox-teams and single-rein mule teams have for the most part disappeared in the United States, our custom of turning to the right might well be replaced by the safer and more convenient English rule, "Keep to the left."

Irving Elting.

Poughkeepsie, N. Y., March 14, 1899.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have heard my father say that the change from the English custom of turning to the left was one of necessity, on account of the difficulty of turning out in the deep snows. In the early days, when America was first settled (and even now one sees it in farm sleighs in the country), the horse was harnessed to the sleigh a little to the right and directly in front of the right runner—in front of the right in preference to the left, because it brought the horse in front of the driver, who sat on the right. Harnessed in this manner, the horse broke the way through the deep snow for one of the runners, and in meeting another vehicle, by turning to the right the horse could break the way for the runner that had to be turned into the deep untrodden snow at the roadside.

Different customs prevail in different parts of Germany and Austria. When I was driving from Salzburg to Berchtesgaden, we had to change at the frontier from left to right.

W.

Boston, March 20, 1899.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Judge Nott's explanation of the change

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in the rule of the road, in the *Nation* of March 16, agrees in part with tradition. His one difficulty may perhaps be solved by substituting bank for snow. When a boy in Massachusetts, I once asked why people turned out to the right. After telling me that there had been a change in the custom, my father said: "I, too, once asked my father this, and it is a question all boys must put, I think, for he told me what he said his own father had told him. In old days, he said, one seldom met another wagon on the road, but one always had to look out for the bank; and even when one met another it was more important to look to the lift of the wheel than to the passer-by." A drive through the woods of eastern Long Island or Cape Cod will illustrate the verisimilitude of this explanation, which, on account of the odd expression, "look to the lift" (instead of look to the left!), has always remained in my memory in its original verbal form. Trees are felled and then the wagons make the road deeper and deeper, grinding down sandy soil till high banks are left on either side. In passing, one's chief care is not to avoid wheels, but to keep balanced one's own wheels, as the road is narrow, being half on the bank.

The explanation given would date from about 1750. WASHBURN HOPKINS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, Mr. H. M. Doak of Nashville, Tenn., in writing on this subject in your paper of March 9, seems not to be aware that in Canada the English custom of keeping to the left is retained. In towns separated by an imaginary line only, but belonging in Canada and in the United States, drivers change their practice at once on crossing the boundary.

It has occurred to me that if the English custom of passing to the left of the road arose from the desire to keep the weapon-hand next a possible enemy, the custom may have been reversed in our earlier settlements because of the fact that the enemies to be guarded against were found, not in persons met on the road, but in savages lurking in the forests on either side of the way. If this supposition is correct, the custom of passing to the right arose from the same source as our peculiar custom of the head of the family sitting at the foot of the pew in churches. Our forefathers sat next to the aisle, with musket in hand, during service, to be in readiness to repel sudden attacks from the Indians.

The persistence in these practices so long after the perils which caused them have passed away, is a curious illustration of that unreason which lies at the bottom of many of our customs. E. F. MERRIAM.

SHARON, MASS., March 14, 1899.

Notes.

William R. Jenkins, New York, announces for publication in September 'The American Cicerone,' a guide to the Paris Exposition of 1900, compiled under the direction of Vicomte de Kératry.

Cassell & Co. are about to reissue their National Library, the older volumes from new plates, and to extend it. The price will still remain at ten cents.

Benj. R. Tucker, New York, has nearly ready 'The Ballad of Reading Gaol,' by Oscar Wilde (*alias* C. 3. 3, his prison number).

Doubleday & McClure Co. will publish at once 'The United States of Europe,' by W. T. Stead.

'Contemporary Spain, as Shown by Her Novelists,' edited by Miss Mary W. Plummer of Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, will presently be issued by Truslove, Hanson & Comba.

Preston & Rounds, Providence, R. I., will make a limited edition, from type, of 'The Diary of Col. Israel Angell, of the Continental Line,' 1778-1781, with annotations by Edward Field, a map and two plates.

The Dominion Co., Chicago, will publish a 'Full Official History of the War with Spain,' by Murat Halstead.

Herbert S. Stone & Co., Chicago, include among their spring publications 'A Short History of the United States,' by Justin Huntly McCarthy; 'The Spanish-American War,' by eye-witnesses; 'Can We Disarm?' by Joseph McCabe and George Darien; 'The History of Gambling in England,' by John Ashton; 'Robert, Earl Nugent,' by Claud Nugent, with many family portraits; 'Successful Houses,' by Oliver Coleman; 'The Perfect Wagnerite,' by G. Bernard Shaw; 'Lucifer: A Theological Tragedy,' by George Santayana; 'After-Supper Songs,' by Elizabeth Coolidge; 'Dross,' by Henry Seton Merriman; 'The Wolf's Long Howl,' by Stanley Waterloo; 'The Cougar-Tamer, and Other Stories of Adventure,' by Frank Welles Calkins; 'The Awakening,' by Kate Chopin; and 'Stories from the Old Testament, for Children,' by Harriet S. B. Beale.

In the press of Macmillan Co. are 'Old Cambridge,' by Thomas Wentworth Higginson, first of a series of "National Studies in American Letters," to be edited by Prof. George E. Woodberry of Columbia University, who, by right, reserves for himself 'The Flower of Essex'; and 'Letters from Japan,' by Mrs. Hugh Fraser, in two volumes, with plentiful illustrations.

Gen. M. F. Force's 'General Sherman,' in the "Great Commanders Series"; 'The Story of Geographical Discovery,' by Joseph Jacobs; 'Letters to a Mother,' by Susan E. Blow; 'Love among the Lions,' by F. Anstey; 'A Duet, with an Occasional Chorus,' by A. Conan Doyle; and 'The Mormon Prophet,' by Lily Dougall, are some of the March issues of D. Appleton & Co.

Notable among the undertakings of the Oxford Clarendon Press (New York: Henry Frowde) is the "British Anthologies," edited by that veteran reprinter, Prof. Edward Arber. Ten volumes are already projected, bearing, respectively, the title of the leading poet in each, as, The Dunbar Anthology, 1401-1508; The Cowper Anthology, 1775-1800. Shakspere, Jonson, and Milton lead off. The collection will be distinguished for consisting almost exclusively of entire poems, and for its cheap price, 2s. 6d. per volume. The editor has taken extraordinary pains to verify at the sources.

Among the works announced for publication next year by the Hakluyt Society are 'The Journeys to Tartary of John of Plano Carpini and William of Rubruk,' translated and edited by W. W. Rockhill, United States Minister at Athens.

Somewhat more than three years ago we welcomed the advent of a singularly original and charming book of impressions of Italy by Maurice Hewlett, under the title, 'Earthwork Out of Tuscany.' The author has since become known by other writings, and won a fresh audience who will be glad to make acquaintance with this work in a second, revised edition (London: Dent; New York: Putnams). The typographical elegance of the first edition is repeated, but wholly new are eighteen rather unsubstantial illustrations by James Kerr-Lawson, amateurish by turns and clever, but only occasionally answering to the praise which Mr. Hewlett bestows upon them. They serve sometimes, in copying statue or painting, to explain the author's allusiveness; but is this not rather to mar our enjoyment than to increase it?

In 'The Emperor Hadrian: A Picture of the Græco-Roman World in his Time' (Macmillan), Miss Mary E. Robinson gives us a translation of the well-known work by Gregorovius, and the University Press of Glasgow furnishes a beautiful specimen of what it can do with the types. The book itself (as Gregorovius seems to have recognized in adding the sub-title, when, in 1883, he recast it from one which he had written in 1851) is really less valuable as an account of Hadrian than as a description of the literary and religious movements and the general culture of the day. As such, it was worth while for Miss Robinson to dress it up in its present attractive English form; but for a proper appreciation of the Emperor, and for satisfactory treatment of the politics of his time, one must look elsewhere.

Dr. T. Stanley Simonds, now assistant professor in the classical department of Hobart College, has published, at the Ld. Baltimore Press, Baltimore, Md., his thesis for the doctorate in philosophy (J. H. U., 1896) on "The Themes Treated by the Elder Seneca." After sketching, in a careful and scholar-like way, the history of Rhetoric and the Rhetorical Schools of Greece and Rome, the life of the elder Seneca and the character of his extant works, he discusses more fully the nature and origin of the subjects used as themes in those schools. The ultimate sources of those themes are shown to be, in most cases, extremely difficult to trace; but they have been sought with great diligence, and when they have not been found, the question is left in a state not likely to tempt any one to a further search. Dr. Simonds has produced a work which cannot fail to interest classical scholars everywhere, blending, as it does, the analytical research of the German student with the freer, broader, and more pleasing manner of modern English scholarship.

The latest volume issued by the Selden Society (vol. xii., for 1898), is entitled 'Select Cases in the Court of Requests.' Its editor is J. S. Leadam, who prefixes an interesting introduction dealing with the history of the court and commenting on the more significant cases.

The latest issue in the "Land und Leute" monographs is 'Cuba,' by E. Deckert (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). Its most attractive feature is a profusion of illustrations—sights and manners in city and country, after photographs and sketches. With it goes an account of the island based on thorough historical research and on travels of the author. A condensed sketch of the colonial development, down to 1850, is followed by a chapter on the successive native struggles for independence, and another on the steps leading to outside interference. As to the predominant motive of our war to free Cuba, Dr. Deckert charitably leaves it open to the reader to judge whether the result was

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more due to "the great sugar and tobacco speculators and the professional politicians," or to "the class of upright idealists who believe in the educational mission of their great republic." Detailed descriptions of the various regions of the island help to make up an agreeable and timely number of this interesting series.

The defence of Boston in the war of 1812, a paper by Mr. W. K. Watkins, published in the Proceedings of the Bostonian Society, is of more than local interest. It is devoted largely to an account of the measures taken in 1814 on occasion of the alarm felt by the presence of British vessels on the coast. It includes a list of the troops from the neighboring towns, a statement of voluntary labor performed on the fortifications, a roster of the militia officers engaged, and a partial bibliography of the literature of the war.

The Bulletin of the Boston Public Library for March contains some useful lists of works, articles and documents on water supply, civic architecture and passenger transportation, compiled for use in connection with the free municipal lectures given in Boston.

In the January Bulletin of the New York Public Library will be found the generous letter of gift from Messrs. Worthington Chauncey Ford and Paul Leicester Ford for the splendid library of Americana amassed by their father, numbering about 100,000 pieces. Even the autographs and manuscripts of this collection will partly revert to the Public Library as the gift of their purchaser, Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan.

The interest of the March number of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* is, as usual, above all personal, and reaches its climax in obituary notices, with portraits, of "Three Worthies," namely, Henry Lee, by President Eliot; David A. Wells, by E. L. Godkin; and Henry Clarke Warren, by Prof. Lanman. These three characters happily represent in as many generations the influence of a great university on public spirit. Of innovations in the University régime none is more striking than the vote of the Board of Overseers on December 7, 1898, that "it is desirable" to place women on the committees "to visit the departments and courses of instruction"; and the consequent appointment of Mrs. Henry Draper for the Observatory, Mrs. Potter for the Veterinary Department, and Miss Ware for the Botanical Gardens and Museum. Significant in another way is a new course in military and naval science, propounded as tending to preserve the peace. The late war has, for the practical-minded, turned attention away from the Italian to the Spanish courses, in the proportion of 150 to 40.

Africa holds the chief place in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for February, which opens with a description of the Egyptian Sudan, its geography, climate, fauna, flora, and tribes, together with a brief sketch of its exploration, accompanied by a valuable and beautiful map. Mr. H. C. Angus describes a recent trip to northern Angoniland in British Central Africa, a region settled a comparatively few years ago by an offshoot of the Zulu race, who have made astonishing progress in agriculture. "Village after village," says the writer, "surrounded by waving cornfields and green plains dotted with herds of cattle, stretched away into the distance. . . . The cornfields seemed unending, and the size and number of the villages fairly astonished me." There is also the first part of an article which aims to show the limits of the Egyptian, and hence English, claims to the territory west of the Equatorial Province in the basin of the upper Ubangi, a branch of the Congo and for a long distance the boundary between the French and Belgian possessions.

The *Geographical Journal* for March contains a paper on "The Plan of the Earth, and its Causes," by J. W. Gregory, in which he supports the theory "that there is a hidden continental symmetry which, when discovered, will explain the law that has determined the distribution of land and water on the globe." This distribution, he holds, "has been determined by the tetrahedal arrangement of the elevations and depressions in the surface of the lithosphere." There is also a summary of the results of seventeen years of exploration and study in Iceland by Dr. Th. Thoroddsen, and an abstract of a paper on the sub-oceanic physical features of the coast of western Europe, by Prof. Edward Hull, together with the discussion upon it by Sir A. Geikie, Admiral Wharton, and others.

The last *Bulletin de la Société de Géographie* for 1898 contains an account of the French expedition, 150 strong, which, starting from Abyssinia, was intended to meet, at the Nile, that of Major Marchand coming from the west. For a month it struggled amid the swamps through which the Baro, a tributary of the Sobat, flows, and then was obliged to return with a loss of nearly half its numbers. The leader, M. de Bonchamps, closes his narrative with a characteristic "pin-prick": "Although unable to reach our goal, . . . our attempt was not in vain [*inutile*]. It opened to the Abyssinian army that unknown and mysterious western route which had hitherto been veiled to them." A general summary of the scientific results of his explorations in Somaliland is prefaced, by the Vicomte E. de Poncins, by a most interesting description of the natives, whom he regards as among the best of the African races, and "incomparably superior to the Abyssinians."

Petermann's Mitteilungen, number one, contains notes with a map of a journey in the western part of German East Africa, and a brief discussion of the physiographic problems, the salinity and temperature of the Pacific Ocean, by A. Lindenkohl of the United States Coast Survey. A relation of extensive journeys in eastern and northern China, by E. von Cholnoky, closes with some arguments for the theory that Chinese architecture is derived, not, as is commonly held, from the hut, but from the bamboo. There is also a summary of the work of the International Glacier Commission appointed at the geological congress held at Zurich in 1894.

The *Consular Reports* for March contains valuable and suggestive information in regard to our trade with Mexico, Turkey, and Russia. What is told of an institution in Odessa for the training of young men in the theory and practice of navigation, will interest all who would encourage the growth of our merchant marine. The consul at Liverpool calls attention to the great decrease in the trade of that port since 1891, amounting to over $150,000,000. In some statistics in regard to the use of telephones throughout the world published by the Swedish Government, it appears that this country leads, with three-fifths of the total of one and a quarter millions, and Germany follows, at a long distance. Next to her are Great Britain, with nearly 70,000, and Sweden with 56,500. Switzerland has more than France.

A relative on the mother's side contributes to the *Rundschau* for March an account of Carl Schurz's life, of which the portion covering his public career in this country is no doubt familiar to most American readers. But the story of his childhood, from his birth "in a castle," and of the earlier years of boyhood, has, as far as we know, never before been told, and will be read with affectionate interest by the friends of the septuagenarian, who has just been fêted in this city. The writer has evidently had access to memoirs the time for whose publication has not yet arrived.

The conservative spirit of the medical State authorities in Germany shows itself again in certain conclusions, as announced by the press, of a conference recently convened in Berlin for a revision of the medical examinations. The representatives of the principal States of the Empire at this meeting did not deem the question of admitting women to medical studies sufficiently ripe for decision *(spruchreif)*. The admission of real-gymnasium *Abiturienten* to the study of medicine was, for the present, denied. Both of these measures have for some years been advocated by many of the foremost university professors. On the other hand, it is proposed to extend the regular university course in medicine to ten semesters, and in regard to foreign students it was decided that the same conditions shall hold for them as for native students. The attitude of the conference towards these questions is very likely due in part to recent statistics, which show a continued rapid increase in the number of practitioners, especially in the larger cities. In the year 1897-'98 this growth amounted in the Empire to 785, or 3 per cent. of the whole number. Meanwhile, the Secretary of State, Count Posadowsky, has announced in the Reichstag that the Imperial Government intends to admit women to the medical examinations on the same conditions as men, and the prospect is that the several State governments will give their consent to this measure, notwithstanding the opposition of the majority of medical practitioners and professors.

Mr. Jacques Reich, whose progress from admirable thumb-nail portraiture in pen-and-ink to etching on a grand scale has been very interesting, sends us from his studio at No. 2 West Fourteenth Street proofs of his large etchings after Collins's oil-painting of Judge Van Brunt and a photograph from life of the late Mrs. Stowe. In the case of the Judge, the original was none too good, but the print will, we think, give general satisfaction as a representation of the man. In the case of Mrs. Stowe, one is perforce led to compare this copper with the wood of Gustav Kruell, whose portrait of the author of 'Uncle Tom' is one of his masterpieces. Mr. Reich has not reached that high level in his technique or in his interpretation, but he gives rather austerely the external character at least of the novelist of freedom, and offers the collector one more option. It were worth an essay to explain why, hitherto, there has been so little demand for the likeness of one whose readers are still to be reckoned by the thousands if no longer by the millions.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, upon the sad occasion of the death of the late Lord Herschell of the High Joint Commission,

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publishes an imperial panel-photograph likeness of characteristic excellence.

It is announced that there remain in the hands of the heirs of the late George Brinley some copies of all the parts of the Brinley Catalogue, with the exception of the first; also, some copies of the index and of the price-lists. So long as they last, these will be sent gratuitously to any public library making application for them, specifying the parts required, and enclosing fifteen cents for each part (five cents for price-lists), to cover postage and mailing expenses. Applications should be addressed to W. I. Fletcher, Librarian of Amherst College, Mass.

—The Annual Reports of the President and Treasurer of Harvard University lack none of their customary distinction as the most interesting educational exhibit in the country. Pioneer innovation and invention go hand in hand with readjustment of old conditions, with dogged persistence in old ways. New statistics are still laboriously devised for practical guidance or philosophic conclusions. President Eliot toys with the subject of the war, among other topics peculiar to the past academic year. As the spiritual head of the University, he finds "at least 82 per cent. of all Harvard College students and young graduates physically fit for the service of the country in time of war," and "the men who take part in the highly competitive athletic sports" not on that account "more inclined to enlist as soldiers or sailors than the ordinary student who is physically sound enough to pass the medical examination." He denies that football is a special training for actual fighting, in which bodily collisions are nowadays anything but the rule. On the other hand, he seems to look back complacently on the Harvard enlistment when generalizing that "so long as there are wars, it will be expedient, especially in democracies, that the best-educated young men bear their full share in war's hardships and dangers." Dean Briggs, on his part, would—even in the hypothetical character of "the most resolute opponent of the war, the most cautious counsellor of young men"—"have felt some shame had there been in the front ranks [*i. e.*, in a bad war] no son of Harvard College." He admits that "it was one thing to offer a life for the Union in 1861, and another to offer it for a war with Spain in 1898; yet if offering life seemed a duty, the very absence of a cause that every man could recognize as great enhanced the self-sacrifice." Surely this is the very bathos of extenuation of faulty action.

—The publication of records of births, deaths, and marriages from official records, which originated in New England some five and twenty years ago, has reached Old England and is growing in favor there. The Harleian Society began the good work by printing the records of London churches, and local societies are springing up in the counties. The Lancashire Parish Register Society, formed for local purposes, reports that in that county there are 106 parishes whose records begin not later than A. D. 1700. Of course none are earlier than A. D. 1538, four years after the Reformation, when, by a royal injunction published by Cromwell, the Vicar-General under Henry VIII., the parochial clergy were ordered to keep registers of all christenings, burials, and weddings. This act was not generally obeyed, and in 1597 the Convocation of Canterbury made an ordinance, approved by Queen Elizabeth, that every minister should agree to keep the register, that every parish should provide a parchment book, and that a copy of entries should be sent annually to the bishop of the diocese. It is distressing to find that, despite these wise laws, not a tithe of these registers now exist. The last century was, indeed, the Dark Age of local history, and not until the reign of Victoria has there been any revival of interest in the preservation of these invaluable records. We hope now that the interest, once aroused, will not subside.

—The Lancashire Society has selected for its first publication the records of the old parish of Bury, a place of 25,000 acres, whose records, beginning in 1590, are in fine condition. This book of 247 pages covers the period from 1590 to 1616, being about one-half of the first volume of records. It is edited by Rev. W. J. Löwenberg and Henry Brierley, and is a plain transcript without notes. For the benefit of genealogists we make a list of the names most frequently occurring on the records, and also of those unusual names which will add to our knowledge of English nomenclature. The latter list we especially commend to the attention of our novelists and dramatists: (1.) Commoner names—Ainsworth, Allen, Anderton, Ashworth, Asmall, Bamforde, Barlow, Battersby, Birch, Blakeley, Booth, Bridge, Brook, Bury, Butterworth, Byrome, Chadwick, Cowpe, Cowper, Crossley, Dawson, Duckworth, Dunster, Fenton, Fieldes, Fletcher, Garside, Greenhalgh, Grime, Hamar, Hardman, Harper, Haslame, Haworth, Haliwell, Hey, Heywood, Hinde, Holliley, Holt, Hopwood, Hunt, Hutchinson, Kay, Kirkman, Leach, Livesey, Lomax, Longworth, Makin, Marcroft, Mather, Meadowcroft, Nabb, Nuttall, Openshaw, Peacock, Ramsbotham, Ridings, Rothwell, Scholfelde, Seddon, Shaw, Shepard, Shipobotham, Siddall, Smethurst, Steele, Symons, Tattersall, Taylor, Unsworth, Wallwark, Warberton, Watmough, Whitaker, Whitehead, Whittle, Whitworth, Wild, Wolfenden, Wolstenholme, Wood, Wrigley, Yate, and Usherwood. (2.) Of unusual names we cite—Accroyd, Amffidsy, Amon, Barres, Baule, Beswick, Bicrofte, Brindle, Bromhead, Brucrcliff, Bruntliffe, Brusame, Butson, Casson, Cheesden, Clegg, Cokshot, Cowburne, Cowdrell, Croichlawe, Dewherste, Digle, Ekersall, Elcock, Emott, Gabbit, Garstange, Gle, Gilibrand, Goiltey, Gorrell, Grundy, Habergam, Haddocke, Hallowes, Halton, Hambage, Haneworth, Heape, Hiptrotte, Hobken, Hoyle, Hyndleye, Janian, Jollie, Kelshaw, Kenion, Kirshaw, Kitchyn, Lenisel, Lightollers, Linney, Loynes, Magnalles, Mankenols, Marcroft, Meller, Moreleye, Oldame, Openhard, Orred, Partington, Pats, Peche, Piccop, Pillinge, Rawnsleye, Redferne, Redforthe, Roileye, Ryves, Saxonn, Scholes, Shakleton, Shorrok, Shriglay, Skarington, Smither, Soar, Stanneringe, Staulman, Stopporte, Stranguishe, Strikeland, Styne, Tilsey, Tonge, Top, Turnaghe, Twyste, Tytterton, Wardle, Waules, Wawan, Wrennoughe, and Wroe.

—A new French review was established in Paris in January, 1897, under the name of *Revue du Palais*, changed last November to *La Grande Revue*. Unlike most of the leading French reviews, it is published monthly. It has achieved a rapid success under the management of M. Labori, who became famous as Zola's defender, and who has proved to be an able editor as well as an eloquent advocate. Each number contains 250 large octavo pages, embracing not more than eight or nine articles, thus affording opportunity for fuller treatment than is possible in most of the periodicals familiar to American readers. Thus, the number for last June contained an article of forty-two pages, by Georg Brandes, on Björnstjerne Björnson; in the November and December numbers M. Émile Faguet, who is almost as industrious and as ubiquitous as Andrew Lang, had an article on "Socialism in 1898," covering altogether 110 pages; in the January number "The Ideas of M. Brunetière" were discussed in 50 pages; in the February number, 55 pages are occupied by part one of a review of Tolstoi's book, 'What Is Art,' by a number of French critics, whom M. Halpérine-Kaminsky, the translator of Tolstoi, inveigled into giving their opinions. Each number also contains a large instalment of one or more new novels. Among the contributors are many well-known names. In addition to those already referred to, it will suffice to mention Jules Claretie, Ernest Daudet, Gaston Paris, Joseph Reinach. The last-named contributes to the February number an account of Gambetta's first case, giving his speech first as written out and committed to memory, and secondly as actually delivered.

—The last number of the *Zeitschrift* of the German Oriental Society completes the fifty-second annual volume of this oldest medium of Oriental scholarship and research. It is a notable issue, largely an account of the abundant details it furnishes concerning the present status of the Society, its membership, the additions to its library, as well as a complete list of the publications toward the preparation and issuing of which the Society has, during the last half-century, furnished financial aid. These particulars fill fifty-eight pages. The *Zeitschrift* was the first learned journal in the Fatherland to admit articles in other tongues than the German. It is a rather remarkable phenomenon that while the whole department of Oriental research has developed to an extraordinary degree in recent decades, the sphere of the *Zeitschrift* has constantly become more and more limited, and it is a question whether the day will not come when there will no longer be any room for a general journal of its kind. One need not be elderly to remember the time when this journal covered practically the entire field of Orientalia, both Semitic and Indo-European. Presently, keeping step with the specializing tendencies of the age, journals narrowly devoted to Egyptology, to Assyriology, to Old Testament criticism and kindred subjects began to appear, thereby depriving the *Zeitschrift* of its position as the chief depository of all these researches as it had been in the beginning of its career. Now there is little left to it except the researches in fields not covered by the specialist periodicals. Only in those lines in which pioneer work is still being done, as, *e. g.*, in reference to the Hittite and the Sabæan inscriptions, is the *Zeitschrift* still in the nature of the case the great organ. This newest issue is fairly indicative of the present sphere and province of the journal. The leading subjects of discussion are the Theological Movements in Islam; Contributions in Explanation of the Persian Inscriptions of Susa; Buddhistic Studies; Grammar of the Vulgar Turkish; and Veda Studies. The

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present editor is Prof. Dr. E. Windisch of the University of Leipzig.

—The Mexican State of Oajaca, on the isthmus of Tehuantepec, harbors many populous Indian tribes, as Zapotecs, Mixtecs, Zoques, Mijes, and others, all differing largely in race, language, and customs. Both of the last named occupy mountain tracts, the Zoques also extending over parts of Chiapas and Tabasco, with their main seat in Oajaca at San Juan de Guichicovi. The Zoque and the Mije Indians speak languages related to each other, and, to judge from the grammars and other material recently published of them by Raoul de la Grasserie, their structure is rather simple and easy of comprehension. The oldest writings in Zoque date from the latter part of the seventeenth century, whereas Mije was not studied by the missionaries till during the eighteenth. From these crude and unscientific attempts we may gather that where both idioms meet, Zoque has the more complete, longer, and more archaic forms, whereas Mije has a strong tendency to contraction and abbreviation. As a rule, the noun is not inflected for number and case, but a substitute for our cases is formed by postpositions. All the inflection is done in the verb, and here polysynthesis reigns supreme; particles of material significance being brought into the body of the verb in profusion, while the root itself is monosyllabic. An objective pronominal conjugation does not exist, but personal subject-pronouns are in Mije placed before, in Zoque after, the verb. In the first person of the verbal plural there is an exclusive as well as an inclusive form, which points to an archaic condition of the language. No relative pronoun exists, but there is a relative particle, *p'hee*, which is placed after its verb, and it is remarkable that the verb *potz*, 'to be,' figures in many verbs as a suffix. In Zoque the personal pronoun resembles closely the possessive pronoun, but is not identical with it as in the Algonquin languages. The numeral system is the quinary one, and in Mije all numerals from one to ten appear to be dissyllabic. The able editor has been at great pains to elucidate the verbal forms by hyphenizing their component parts, but in the devotional pieces appended as texts this has not been done so extensively. The Zoque vocabulary is more copious than that of Mije, and contains several thousand terms of the language. The book is entitled 'Langue Zoque et Langue Mixe; Grammaire, Dictionnaire et Textes, traduits et analysés par Raoul de la Grasserie, lauréat de l'Institut,' etc. It forms the twenty-second volume of Maisonneuve's well-known "Bibliothèque Linguistique Américaine."

—The post-office of India has to contend with difficulties of which we have no conception. The matter-of-fact *Report* of the working of this magnificent establishment for 1897-98 is not without its touches, now of humor, now almost of romance or of tragedy. The postal-runners climb the lofty Himalayan snow-passes and traverse the dangerous jungle. River squalls, cyclones, and earthquakes bring destruction to mail-boats and offices, and death to the messengers. A swinging bridge over the Chenab gives way, and down falls the village postman, never to emerge alive. Yet, in spite of all, the department handled in the year some 460 million pieces of matter, an average of 1.63 pieces per head for the general population, or of 38.58 for the literate population. Human nature vies with inanimate nature to increase the tribulations of the Director-General. A tremendous pother was raised by a local magnate in Bengal over the behavior of a village postman. The ponderous machinery of investigation was set agoing, and it transpired that the humble offender had handed the big man a letter with the left hand instead of the right! The post-card is becoming exceedingly popular, and, strangest of all, telegraphic money orders are coming widely into vogue in Burmah, being used by the emigrant laborers there, who often wire money to their distressed kindred at home during the famine. The "value-payable post" is an institution which we Americans might well adopt from India.

LONGFELLOW'S COLUMN AND THE ARCH.

The Column and the Arch: Essays on Architectural History. With illustrations. By William P. P. Longfellow. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899. $2.

The author of this book is known to scholars better than to the large general public which is in need of this volume, and which should be ready to buy it. He is the editor of the 'Cyclopædia of Architecture' in course of publication by the Messrs. Scribner, one part of which is already on sale—a large quarto volume devoted to Italy, Greece, and the Levant. He has been a contributor to the *Atlantic Monthly* and other journals, to the *American Architect* of Boston and the *Architectural Record* of New York, as well as to our own columns. He is one of the small band of writers in the English language who devote themselves to architecture and its correlative subjects, and who write more or less frequently as there seems something important to be said in print upon those subjects. Mr. Longfellow has had less opportunity or less occasion to go far afield in travel or in study. He offers no new discoveries; his work is rather conservative than radical, and he is rather the careful man who holds by the traditional beliefs until they must be abandoned, than the eager student who finds himself unable to believe that which is general belief, and seeks energetically for new theories which will account for all the phenomena.

This book, therefore, which contains eight of his essays gathered from periodicals and reshaped, is trustworthy in a very peculiar sense of the word. If the reader finds a popular belief ignored, or mentioned and quietly contradicted, or else, as in a few cases, examined and shown to be false, he can be sure that this is a safe, and, in a sense, a final disposing of it. Even of his negative and destructive criticism the author is not too free; he is not too bold even in denial, nor will any one find himself led astray by accepting any such rejection of any proposition or any theory as Mr. Longfellow has thought it necessary to put into words.

If this is peculiarly true of the chapters on the "Age of Constantine" and "Early Christian Architecture," it is only because there are more disputed questions concerning the long succession of years from about the year 375 onward. Almost every writer has his theory of the Christian basilica—the more conventional one, that it was the Roman civic basilica taken possession of by the Christian church, or the more complex and curious one, that it is a modification of the Roman domestic interior, as of a large mansion turned gradually to the purposes of Christian worship; but it seems to have been left for Mr. Longfellow to state these theories in sequence, as he does on pages 93 and 94, and then to begin the more usual and less bewildering inquiry, What was a Christian basilica? The reader may regret that his author has this time refused to state the arguments. "This is not the place to enter into such controversies," is what we find stated on page 94, but this seems to be unfortunate, for it is exactly this place and exactly this hand which might be thought most fitted for the discussion. It is said that such discussion would "demand the compass of a volume, and a long array of arguments and citations." But that does not appear evident. At the foot of page 95 begins a series of statements which go far towards putting the case for and against the more important of the theories which have been broached. It seems a pity that ten pages more could not have been given to this discussion, as they would certainly have been enough to settle the question for all unprofessional readers. The author's conclusion is that the basilican church followed the rule of other systems of building which "have become fixed and exemplary," resulted from experiment, gradual modification, improvements slowly added and always retained—in short, that there was an evolution of the basilica, as there was of Gothic architecture or of the Greek temple; and it is pointed out that Christianity was not an insignificant or altogether unsuccessful institution when Constantine declared himself a Christian, but that already it was a powerful party in the state, although it had of late been denounced and persecuted, and although it had been so far a minority. There is a very excellent expression of the as yet unexplained relation between Byzantine architecture and the basilican type of church. The longing which every archæologist feels for some vigorous and consecutive exploration of the land of the East, of Asia Minor, and of Syria, with its deserts, is well expressed on pages 102 and those which follow. Moreover, the conclusion which the author is almost ready to reach, as he states on page 104, is one that every ardent student has felt, viz.: the conclusion that it was "the inexhaustible Greek" who, apart from all his other achievements in the world of artistical and constructional thought, was occupied also in the fourth, fifth, and sixth centuries in developing at the same time Byzantine architecture and the Romanesque of the West.

The first essay in this volume is devoted to the Lotus column, and deals with the earliest columnar architecture, viz., that which recent discoveries have shown as existing in Egypt under the Fifth Dynasty. The capital found in 1894 in the tomb at Abusir is given in photography, and is described, and the remarks upon it are based in part upon Mr. George Foucart's monograph. This chapter is an essay on columnar architecture as illustrated by the earlier and later Egyptian practice. The break between this and the subject of the next chapter has been inevitable, because as yet no one has established the chronological or other sequence which may be found to lead from Egypt into Greece. The second chapter is devoted to Greco-Roman architecture, and in this the author treats the subject, as he has always loved to treat it, as one. To

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him the architecture of Trajan is almost a necessary evolution from the architecture of the fifth century B. C. This opinion will not meet with universal acceptance; but it is of extreme interest, and the general proposition that the Roman Empire, whose mission it was to Hellenize the European world, carried out its mission as frankly in architecture as in literature and in philosophy, is a proposition which can perfectly well be defended. If the purpose of this book were especially the proving of this theory, the reviewer might now find much to say in opposition to the theory and in confutation of the arguments which support it; but this is one of the instances of that suspension of opinion, of that arrest of judgment, and agreement among scholars to hold different ideas until a clearer agreement may become possible, which abound in the world of reasonable thought. Following this are the two chapters named above, and which between them seem to cover the earliest Christian ages.

The fifth chapter is devoted to the great basilica of S. Maria Maggiore, to its checkered history and the curious incidents which accompany that history; the sixth chapter is devoted to Romanesque architecture, and some of the best writing, the most careful and patient examination, and the wisest conclusions of the book are to be found within it. The consideration of scale which is carried far in the pages from 177 on, is extremely suggestive and intelligent, and the distinction between the Romanesque as it took its permanent shape, and that Imperial Roman style from which it had been slowly developed, is marked with almost perfect clearness in the paragraphs beginning on page 179. Allusion is here made to the natural result of the Romanesque styles, the great Gothic movement; but the Gothic style is in itself made the subject of no chapter in the book, and the preface explains the reason for this, namely, that it seems to Mr. Longfellow that the Gothic, like the Byzantine, was out of the line of such growth. To him the Romanesque architecture followed the Roman and led to, let us say, the Renaissance, while the Byzantine architecture was a thing on one side, growing out separately, and having no result, and the Gothic architecture, if we read our author aright, was another manifestation of the same sort. Now this may seem to the reader a very great heresy, indeed. It may be urged with equal safety that the Byzantine architecture had all the possibilities in it, and that nothing checked it but simple brutal conquest —the violence of nearly barbarous warriors without any sympathy for the style which they overthrew, and who, though they allowed that style to influence their own later buildings, had meanwhile destroyed and utterly stamped into the mud the civilization from which that style had arisen. The true lover of Byzantine architecture feels that here was one of the world's great disappointments, and it is not a consolation to him to be told, or to see it implied, that the lack of fruition of the Eastern style was inevitable. So with the Gothic style; it is quite clear that we could not build to-day with modern requirements, modern materials, modern appliances of different sorts, in the way which was used by the French masons of the time of St. Louis; but no one who is greatly interested in mediæval building and who loves sincerely even the latest developments of what we call roughly the Gothic style, can fail to regret that he never can know what would have sprung from it if the whim for introducing classical details into a system of building which did not admit of them had never invaded northern Europe. That would have been the real delight—to have seen Italy returning, as it had every right to return, to its Roman tendencies, to the round arch, the engaged and the free column, and the delicately sculptured design of scrolls, while France and the north struggled on through centuries of experiment, starting at the point best marked, perhaps, by a dozen nearly contemporaneous buildings of the reign of Louis XI. Let us see things as they are, and not try to believe, nor yet make believe, that the development of art was followed in the only possible path. This is so far from being true that the history of architecture is crowded with wretched disappointments, with miserable non-results where great things might have been hoped for, and ruin and confusion as marked and as hopeless as that of societies and policies.

The last two chapters of the book are devoted to the Renaissance in general, and to St. Peter's at Rome. The intelligent handling of the architectural problem in the former of these two chapters is most marked. To many readers it will prove the most attractive chapter of all. The balanced judgment—for it is much more than mere unprejudiced fairness—which points out the tendencies both ways in each of the different changes made by Brunelleschi, by Bramante, by Alberti, and their followers is worth the most careful notice. And, finally, the study of the revived classic, which has been admirably classified in a hundred words on page 260, is carried to its natural results in the analysis of the great Roman church. It is curious, by the way, that this church, so faulty in its general result—so great a disappointment, as it must be, to each one of its great designers, its series of fifteen architects, could they see it now—yet retains its hold upon the student, no matter how great a devotee of purity and of refinement. Characteristically enough for a writer so simple and practical as Mr. Longfellow, the account of the church ends with a hint to the student as to the good way of seeing the church without losing the true sense of its vast size. It is wisely pointed out that the great length of the nave, which has ruined the outside of the church as a design, has improved the interior. This nave, leading to the "glory of the central space," is rightly praised. "The gradual expansion from east to west gains slowly upon one as he moves towards the choir; its fulfilment as he reaches the centre is stupendous; there is nothing of its kind like it in the world."

RECENT BOOKS ON MUSICAL TOPICS.

By the Way—About Music. By W. F. Apthorp. Boston: Copeland & Day. 2 vols.

Great Composers and their Work. By Louis C. Elson. Boston: L. C. Page Co.

Music and Poetry. By Sidney Lanier. Chas. Scribner's Sons.

How Music Developed. By W. J. Henderson. F. A. Stokes Co.

Geschichte des Theaters und der Musik am Kurpfälzischen Hofe. Von F. Walter. Breitkopf & Härtel.

Das Klavierspiel. Von Alfred Richter. Breitkopf & Härtel.

New musical books follow one another so rapidly that it is difficult to keep pace with them. Their quality, at the same time, is steadily improving. The first on our list to-day, while ostensibly written chiefly to entertain, incidentally conveys much valuable information. Mr. Apthorp has solved the problem of making erudition palatable and tempting to the general reader. His 'Musicians and Music-Lovers' (1894), with its splendid chapters on Bach and Franz, is on the whole for serious students, while the two neat little volumes entitled 'By the Way—About Music' would strike any one as being just the thing to carry in the overcoat pocket to read between the acts at the opera or in the concert hall. The papers making up these volumes were, indeed, written for that very purpose. They appeared originally as "interludes" between the analyses of the symphonies and overtures in the programmes of the Boston Symphony Orchestra, from 1892 to 1897.

It is lucky for the patrons of the Boston Orchestra that Mr. Apthorp thus condescends to entertain them, for his technical analyses are as a rule not edifying to any one but students of composition. The eminent Boston critic seems to think that anatomy is the essence of music, and form its alpha and omega. Holding this creed, he naturally feels hurt by Wagner's sneer that if there were no form there would be no critics, and that "the critics see this so plainly that they clamor for form in the anguish of their souls." In revenge he tries, without success, to disprove Wagner's dictum that Liszt's symphonic poems are based on nobler principles of form than those which are provided by the marches and dances out of which the symphony grew. He also raises a smile when he declares that "it was for some time a legend that the intellectual element largely preponderated over the emotional in Brahms's writing." But, apart from a few such cases as these, there are no opinions in these volumes that cannot be cordially endorsed, whether the author be writing about impressionism, naturalism, habit, fashion, the influence of surroundings, music and the eye, plagiarism, some points in modern orchestration, brains, the non-musician's enjoyment of music, people who hate music, some popular fallacies, musical reminiscences of Boston thirty years ago, or artists in general, etc. There are few books in which anecdotes and thoughts are so happily blended, few in which all kinds of music are so fairly and luminously discussed.

Nothing could be better than the way Mr. Apthorp disposes of the pedants who want to hear Handel's music "just as he wrote it"; or the explanation he gives of the infrequent use of trombones in the concert scores of Mozart and Haydn; or his remarks on Lilli Lehmann's revival of the good old way of singing coloratur arias; or his characterization of Tchaikovsky as a conductor, closing with these lines: "It soon became evident that the man was positively an electric battery, launching electric flashes right and left from that terrible bâton of his, egging his men on to the utmost fury of fiery intensity. . . . Tchaikovsky and his chatelet audience were like two logs, mutually keeping each other hot!" Another specimen may be quoted. Hans von Bülow once played the so-called "Moonlight Sonata" in Boston Music Hall with all the gas turned down to a bead. "At first it seemed rather a cheap device, unworthy of both sonata and pianist; but it was sufficiently known that Von Bü-

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low's reputation as a musician was untainted by even a suspicion of charlatanism, and most of us were quite willing to humor him in his whim. I think that, before long, we found in our heart of hearts that the half-darkness was really an admirable *cadre* for the composition—notably for the last movement." Personal recollections like these illumine most of Mr. Apthorp's pages, and to them his new volumes owe much of their interest.

Mr. Louis C. Elson is another Boston critic whose contributions to musical literature are always welcome. In his new volume on the great composers he has, with much literary skill, condensed into 300 pages an enormous amount of up-to-date biographic information, flavored with terse critical estimates. He begins even before Bach and Handel, with the old Flemish school, while his last four chapters relate to Wagner, Brahms, Verdi, and "other influences in modern music." Living in Boston, Mr. Elson of course underrates Liszt and overrates Brahms. He makes the amusing assertion that Liszt's ambition "was to be considered as a composer rather than as a pianist; this reputation, however, will probably be denied him"; whereas "posterity will do more unanimous homage than the present to the Browning of music"—Brahms. It would be foolish to argue against a prophecy, but Mr. Elson errs in berating the critics for underrating Brahms. As a matter of fact, the vast majority of critics took to Brahms at once as to a kindred spirit and champion of "form"; whereas the creative minds, like Wagner, Liszt, Tchaikovsky, Paderewski, have looked askance at him. With Liszt it is just the other way: It is the creators just named, besides Dvorák, Grieg, Saint-Saëns, who have expressed admiration of him, while the critics, and the critics alone, have failed to "catch up with the procession." It is in the chapter on Liszt, not in that on Brahms, that Mr. Elson should have put Liszt's aphorism, that the musical critics are "the rear-guard of the musical army in its march of progress." Surely, also, Mr. Elson erred in regard to proportion in giving Brahms eight pages, and to an infinitely more original mind, Tchaikovsky, only one. Another creator who stands far above Brahms—Grieg—receives still less justice.

Mr. Elson gives, in thirty pages, a remarkably lucid explanation of Wagner's principles of the music-drama. He calls Wagner's pamphlet on Judaism in Music "an impeachment of the most musical race of the world as being unmusical." He has the courage to write (in Boston!): "If musicians were asked the question, 'Who is the greatest of all the masters?' most of them would reply, 'Beethoven.' Yet this is a statement not entirely true; judged from the purely intellectual standpoint, Bach is, probably, the greatest musician that ever lived; weighed by the standard of emotional expression, Chopin might be accorded the leadership." He might have added that Wagner, Weber, Bizet, wrote greater operas, and Schubert, Schumann, Franz, and several others, greater songs; which reduces Beethoven's supremacy to the symphony. The time is indeed approaching when the musical values established by German professionals must receive a thorough readjustment.

The late Sidney Lanier's book has several suggestive chapters relating to poets and poetry, but the bulk of the volume appeals to musical readers. In the first chapter he makes a brilliant defence of programme music, culminating in the assertion that "if programme music is absurd, all songs are nonsense"; and he asks pertinently, "Why not hint a storm with stormy tones, as well as describe a storm in stormy words?" The author was intensely patriotic. He believed that "one finds more talent for music among the Americans, especially among American women, than among any other people." He looked forward to seeing America the home of the orchestra, and held that orchestral playing would prove a field which women will cultivate as a specialty in the future. One of his assertions regarding the orchestra—"The time is not far distant when the twenty violins of a good orchestra will be balanced by twenty flutes"—is calculated to make a musician smile; but it is not so absurd as it seems, in view of Lanier's remarks (35-38) regarding the Boehm flute's capacity for varied coloring, which may be commended to the attention of composers.

Mr. Henderson's book is a critical and explanatory account of the growth of modern music. Some of its chapters are on the evolution of the piano and piano-playing, the sonata, evolution of the orchestra, chamber music, oratorio, Handel and Bach, Italian, French, and German opera, etc. There is little original research, but a vast amount of traditional information presented in a much more lucid and direct style than is usually to be found in books on musical form and history. One of the strange opinions advanced is that "Rossini was not a musical genius." The author of "William Tell" was certainly a genius, but he usually squandered his gift in an unworthy manner, a victim of fashion. Probably the best chapter in the book is that on Wagner, and here the discussion of the device of leading motives is particularly worth reading. It is a common error to suppose that a listener cannot appreciate Wagner's music-dramas without committing to memory all the names of the leading motives devised by Hans von Wolzogen. Mr. Henderson shows, on the contrary, that "it does not even matter whether he knows that there are any leading motives at all."

Of the two books published by Breitkopf & Härtel which complete our list, the first is an elegantly printed history of the theatre and music of the Palatinate Court, issued by the Antiquarian Society of Mannheim. Mannheim was famous for its opera in the eighteenth century, and many things have happened in Heidelberg of interest to students of musical history. The most entertaining chapter is that which describes Mozart's adventures during the year he spent at Mannheim; it contains characteristic details regarding the influences that developed his musical genius. One of these was a young girl to whom he gave lessons. The day after seeing her, he wrote the allegro of a sonata in her honor, and when asked what the next movement was to be, he answered "an andante reflecting the character of Miss Rose."

Alfred Richter's book on piano-playing is a welcome indication that educators are gradually beginning to realize that the old method of teaching young pianists nothing but technique is quite "played out" and leads to disastrous results. Herr Richter does, indeed, devote the greater part of his volume to finger exercises, fingering, trills, and other matters of mechanical execution, but he also has much of value to say regarding touch, tone-color, and expression. His remarks on rhythm and tempo—particularly tempo rubato—may be specially commended to the attention of students of music. The absence of an index is unpardonable.

West African Studies. By Mary H. Kingsley. The Macmillan Co. 1899.

Miss Kingsley's style is certainly vivacious. It is impossible to read what she has written without a constant ripple of amusement, breaking occasionally into open laughter. There is some straining after effect; the author from time to time aims to be smart, with indifferent success, falling into colloquy, even into vulgarity, and almost profanity. Nevertheless, she is never tedious, and her eye is so keen, her appreciation so sympathetic, and her intelligence so broad, as to make her book a genuine contribution to our knowledge of West Africa and its inhabitants. A large part of it is taken up with appendices and historical summaries, which are generally instructive and valuable. It is abundantly illustrated, but the illustrations are more numerous than interesting. The author's own observations and comments form the best part, and furnish ample material for the reviewer.

We must pass over the narrative portions of the work, which are, of course, precisely those portions which the reader in search of entertainment will not skip; nor can we do justice to the particulars given by Miss Kingsley concerning the climate of the West Coast, its geography, its different tribes, and the generations of traders, adventurers, and soldiers who have had dealings with them. We may note, by the way, that she is no believer in the repatriation of Africans. In the first place, there is a plenty of Africans in Africa already; and, in the second place, the descendants of the exported Africans seem to have lost their power of resistance to the malarial climate. In fact, the mortality among the imported Africans is as great as among the white settlers; and that is saying enough to condemn the scheme of the Colonization Society.

Concerning animism, or fetishism, which is essentially the religion of the whole of this region, and which Miss Kingsley has studied with great care, we remark one important generalization: there is no love in it. Everything is personified; there is no motion or natural force that is not caused by a soul, but these spirits are regarded with fear and not with affection. Whatever good is done to men by a fetish is not a cause for gratitude, because it was bought by propitiatory gifts; as Dr. Nassau has said, there is "no praise, no love, no thanks, no confession of sin." The spirits of ancestors, it is true, if properly treated, are well disposed towards their posterity; but they are apt to be malevolent to those not of their kin. This boundless polytheism develops a fascinating mythology; but there seems little recognition of any supreme deity except under missionary influence. Nor does Miss Kingsley consider that there is any proper deification of human beings, or hero-worship, among the people whom she has known.

The great importance of recognizing the fact that the Africans are beings of a completely different nature from the Europeans, having minds and institutions that are peculiar to themselves, is most emphatically brought out by Miss Kingsley. We need not say that information of this kind is at pre-

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sent of special interest to American readers. If we are to govern the Philippine Islands, it must be by a system resembling the government of the crown colonies of Great Britain. That system meets with severe condemnation from Miss Kingsley. She goes to the root of the matter in demanding what reason Europeans have for interfering with Africa at all. She answers that there may be two reasons—the religious reason and the "pressure" reason. The former justifies the missionary movement; the latter reason would arise if the Africans threatened to invade Europe, which they do not, or if the Europeans were driven to settle in Africa for lack of living-room elsewhere, which there is not. Climate, in short, forbids it, and hence European meddling is nothing but exploitation of Africa for purposes of greed, for which "commercial purposes" is a euphemism. Miss Kingsley, it is true, thinks that the English manufacturers ought to be allowed to barter their wares for the raw materials of Africa, but not to the harm of the Africans.

In the more unhealthy parts of the world, Miss Kingsley declares, English administration has failed, and failed because of the crown-colony system. Such parts are the West Indies, Guiana, and Honduras. They are unprosperous, and the West African colonies are in a way to be like them. The Governor, under this system, is a King Log or a King Stork; as Miss Kingsley says, the English policy is "a coma, accompanied by fits." "It destroys the native form of society, and thereby disorganizes labor. It has no power of reorganizing it." Moreover, the policy of England towards the protected tribes has changed. It was formerly a friendly and peaceable policy; it has become a policy of conquest. There have been wars for the suppression of peculiarly barbarous practices, such as human sacrifices, but there are now wars to enforce systems of taxation which the natives regard as confiscation. Hence the feeling that the English are friendly allies has given place, Miss Kingsley says, to something approaching a panicky terror of white civilization. Quoting Mr. H. Clifford on the Malays, she agrees that the boot of the white man

"kicks down native institutions, . . . reducing all things to that dead level of conventionality which we call civilization. Incidentally it stamps out much of what is best in the customs and characteristics of the native races against which it brushes; and though it relieves him of many things which hurt or oppressed him ere it came, it injures him morally almost as much as it benefits him materially. . . . What we are really attempting, however, is nothing less than to crush into twenty years the revolution in facts and ideas which, even in energetic Europe, six long centuries have been needed to accomplish. . . . Forced plants we know suffer in the process; and the Malay, whose proper place is amidst the conditions of the thirteenth century, is apt to become morally weak and seedy, and lose something of his robust self-respect, when he is forced to bear nineteenth-century fruit."

The Africans, Miss Kingsley eloquently contends, are to be regarded as different beings from the Europeans, but not therefore as inferior beings, and her arguments are forcible and philosophical. She says:

"There are many who hold murder the most awful crime a man can commit, saying that thereby he destroys the image of his Maker; I hold that one of the most awful crimes one nation can commit on another is destroying the image of Justice, which in an institution is represented more truly to the people by whom the institution has been developed, than in any alien institution of justice; it is a thing adapted to its environment. This form of murder by a nation I see being done in the destruction of what is good in the laws and institutions of native races. In some parts of the world, this murder, judged from certain reasonable standpoints, gives you an advantage; in West Africa, judged from any standpoint you choose to take, it gives you no advantage. By destroying native institutions there, you merely lower the morals of the African race, stop trade and the culture advantages it brings both to England and West Africa. . . . West Africa to-day is just a quarry of paving-stones for Hell, and those stones were cemented in place with men's blood mixed with wasted gold."

We forbear comment on these assertions, merely remarking that they are amply supported by the evidence which Miss Kingsley so brilliantly presents. Those of our people who imagine that our Government can wisely undertake the task of substituting our institutions for those of alien races, will do well to read, ponder, and digest these West African Studies; and, as we have said, the book will be found in other respects entertaining and profitable.

A Short History of Astronomy. By Arthur Berry, M.A., Fellow of University College, London. Scribners. 1899. 12mo, pp. xxvii, 440.

The study of the beginnings of astronomy has a wider interest than that which commonly attaches to the development of a special branch of knowledge. When we speak of this as the oldest of the sciences, whose origin is lost in the mists of antiquity, we fail to convey the whole truth. A large body of folk-lore relates to the varying aspects and motions of the heavenly bodies, the relations of which to every-day life were as close as now. Comets and eclipses were a source of fear or perplexity to monarchs through much the greater part of history. Astrologers and soothsayers read the fate of men in the stars centuries before Rameses was born. If the body of knowledge thus acquired could not be called science in the modern sense, it still served as a stimulus for the beginning of a science. Not only would any history of thought be incomplete that did not include the progress of thought about astronomy, but there are modes of thinking which we might never discover but for the light thrown on them by that science.

A curious instance is found in the work of Copernicus. Instead of emphasizing the revelation which he made in setting forth the true system of the world, he made every effort to belittle it by attributing his ideas to the ancients, and by professing to build his entire structure on the traditional ideas of natural philosophy. Instead of claiming the heliocentric system as his own, he threw it over the shoulders of Pythagoras and Philolaus. He took the 'Almagest' of Ptolemy as his model because an authority thirteen centuries old was not to be lightly set aside. The condition of thought in which the construction of a new system of nature was looked upon as an act to be condemned for its temerity, rather than applauded for the genius it showed, has been so little understood that it is even now the fashion to follow Copernicus by attributing his system to the ancients.

We should have been better pleased with Mr. Berry's well-written and entertaining book if he had brought out in a stronger light the features of astronomical history thus suggested. While he does not entirely ignore them, he fails to see their real importance. He seems to see fairly well the groundlessness of the current view which attributes the heliocentric theory to Pythogoras or his school; yet he cites the authority of Copernicus in favor of this view, in seeming unconsciousness of the real motive that inspired the Canon of Frauenberg. The fact is, that there is no great idea recorded in the history of thought which is so completely the work of one man as the heliocentric theory is the work of Copernicus. Newton himself was not the first to form the conception of gravitation among the celestial bodies, or even to see that it varied inversely as the square of the distance. What he did was to collect the more or less vague and unproved ideas of others and weld them into a consistent and harmonious whole, with a skill and mathematical power that were, at the time, unequalled. In the case of Copernicus, we have plenty of evidence that the idea of the earth's rotation on its axis had been entertained in ancient times; but there is no real evidence that any one ever doubted the conclusiveness of Ptolemy's demonstration that the earth did not move away from the centre of the celestial sphere.

Mr. Berry's book is to be cordially commended to the reader who is interested in the study of astronomy in detail. It is designed for the general reader rather than for the investigator, and therefore gives brief developments on such points as the former may not have at command. The writer has evidently based his conclusions on a painstaking study of the best authorities, both ancient and modern. The main stricture to which the work is liable is that of being too exclusively a work of detail, and, therefore, failing to convey a correct apprehension either of the relative importance of the various topics, or of the relation of each to the whole. This feature is evident even in the indexes, which are guides to words and phrases rather than to subjects, and, therefore, from their very fulness, give scant help to the reader who wants to find where a special subject is treated. We fancy that the spelling of Copernicus with a double *p* (Coppernicus) which the author does, as he says himself, "at the risk of appearing pedantic," grows out of undue attention to minutiæ. If universal English practice for three centuries does not suffice to settle this point, the fact that only one *p* is used in 'De Revolutionibus' ought to suffice.

The Butterfly Book: A Popular Guide to a Knowledge of the Butterflies of North America. By W. J. Holland, Ph.D., D.D., LL.D. With 48 plates in color-photography, reproductions of butterflies in the Author's collection, and many text illustrations presenting most of the species found in the United States. Doubleday & McClure Co. 1898.

This book, of 383 pages of text and 48 colored plates, makes it possible at last to recommend to the amateur a work by means of which he can identify the butterflies that he has taken in the course of a summer's collecting. It is literally what it professes to be—a butterfly book; and while by no means all the species that occur in North America north of Mexico are figured, such as are omitted are not likely to be taken by one who collects butterflies merely as a pastime. It is also "popular," for in no

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other sort of work would the vein of egotistic self-glorification, which runs through it, be permissible. It adds nothing to our scientific knowledge of either the life-history of the species or their classification. The text-figures illustrating venation might just as well have been omitted in the majority of instances, and many of the descriptions of genera are interesting only from their resemblance to other descriptions of other genera.

Judged solely as a popular work to be put into the hands of the amateur, this is a notable contribution to the literature of American Entomology, and (a novel departure in its kind) presented at what is really a very reasonable price. The illustrations, done by what is called the three-color process of photo-engraving, are accurate throughout as well as characteristic, and too high praise cannot be accorded them. As a rule, the specimens used were good and well set, the color scheme is excellent, and, as far as it is possible to identify species merely from pictures, nothing better can be asked. The presswork has been as careful as the labor of the artist and the engraver. There are some instances, of course, where the register was not perfect, and individual plates in almost all copies will be a little wanting in this respect; but these are trifling defects compared with the general accuracy. In some cases there may be a question as to the correctness of the name applied to the species figured; but these are rare, for Dr. Holland really has exceptional facilities for the determination of American butterflies, even if his collection is not so much superior to all others in the United States as his book would lead us to believe. He has by far the greater portion of the types of the North American species described by Mr. W. H. Edwards, and such as are not typical have been in most cases carefully compared. There is an introductory chapter of twenty-three pages which contains a compiled life history and anatomy of butterflies, and another of twenty-one pages on the capture, preparation, and preservation of specimens, which will be exceedingly useful to the young owner of the book. The illustrations of apparatus, etc., are mostly well known and are not always credited; but as a whole this portion of the work will prove very useful. The index is full and good, the only criticism to be made here being that the entire absence of all reference to synonyms will prove very puzzling in some cases to the beginner who has secured his first determinations from Harris and other older authors. To sum up, the book compares very favorably with those of a similar class published abroad.

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